THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

JANUARY, 1801.

ART. I.—ΕΥΡΙΠΙΔΟΥ ΟΡΕΣΤΗΣ. *Euripidis Orestes ad Fidem Manuscriptorum emendata et brevibus Notis Emendationum potissimum Rationes reddentibus instructa. In Usum studiosæ Juventutis.* 8vo. 3*s. sewed.* Wilkie.

AS we have given our opinion upon the talents of the editor with sufficient explicitness in our preliminary remarks on the *Hecuba* in our journal for November last, we shall proceed without ceremony or preamble to some animadversions on his *Orestes*. Bespeaking at the same time the patient indulgence of our readers, if the greater length and superior importance of this play should protract our remarks beyond our former limits; and premising also that this single tragedy of Euripides exhibits probably more specimens of deviation from the purity of iambic verse (in which anomalies we mean to comprehend every dactyl, anapæst, and tribrachys, except the dactyl and tribrachys in the *third* foot, a variation too frequent to be reckoned an anomaly) than all the extant tragedies of Æschylus, or Sophocles, put together; an observation which may possibly be new to *most* of our readers, and must be deemed a singularity by *all*.

On ver. 8. '*ὡς μεν λεγουσιν, κ.τ.λ.*' the professor makes a just remark: 'Istud *μεν*, cui non respondet *δε*, (more accurately he might have said, Cui *nullum δε* respondet) innuit Electram parum credulam esse.'

But this admonition is too ænigmatical for learners, which, indeed, is the general character of the professor's manner; and his object, we think, would have been more effectually answered, had he said, that a short sentence equivalent in meaning to *εγω γε δ' ουκ αυτοις πειθομαι*, was to be tacitly supplied, on such occasions, by the reader.

Ver. 51. The editor properly notices the propensity of the copyists to obliterate the dual number, and excellently corroborates his observation by thus correcting an immusical verse of Hel. 299:

'*εις ξυμβολ' ελθοντ', ἁ φανερ' αν μονοις αν ην.*'

That the particle αν is occasionally repeated in the same clause must be allowed, however ungrateful and superfluous it may appear; but no necessity existed for such repetition in the present instance: the objection might have been removed by reading,

εις ξυμβολ' ελθονθ', ἁ φανερ' αν ΜΟΝΟΙΣΙΝ ην.

We are mistaken also if a further specimen of this depravation have not essentially injured the purity of numbers in a verse immediately preceding, v. 48. where we would correct,

ΜΗΤΡΟΚΤΟΝΟΥΝΤΕ· κυρια—.

On v. 54. 'λιμενα δε Ναυπλιειον εκπληρων πλατη,' the professor very properly vindicates the curious expression λιμενα εκπληρων πλατη, but adduces nothing new in its support. *One* of his *three* instances had been already alleged by Musgrave, and the other two by Mr. Wakefield, in his Silva Critica, and Remarks on the Ion of our Tragedian. Yet; though εκπερων must not be obtruded on the poet here, the simple verb is demanded by him at v. 1278 of his Electra, instead of παρων, the present reading:

'μητερα δε την σην αρτι Ναυπλιαν ΠΕΡΩΝ
Μενελαος——.

'Cur N finalem in επεκλωσεν v. 12 et similibus addiderim, nemo nisi qui communi sensu plane careat, requiret. Sed erunt fortasse nonnulli, qui minus necessario hoc factum arbitraturi sint in παρεδωκεν. Rationes igitur semel exponam, nunquam posthac moniturus. Quanquam enim sæpe syllabas natura breves positione producunt tragici, longe libentius corripiunt, adeo ut tria prope exempla correptarum invenias, ubi unum modo exstet productarum. Sed hoc genus licentiæ, in verbis scilicet non compositis, qualia τεκνον, πατρος ceteris longe frequentius est. Rarius multo syllaba producitur in verbo composito, si in ipsam juncturam cadit, ut in πολυχρυσος Andr. 2. Eadem parsimonia in augmentis producendis utuntur, ut in επεκλωσεν sup. 12. κεκλησθαι Sophocl. Elect. 366. Rarior adhuc licentia est, ubi præpositio verbo jungitur, ut in αποτροποι Phœn. 600. Sed ubi verbum in brevem vocalem desinit, eamque duæ consonantes excipiunt, quæ brevem manere patiantur, vix credo exempla indubiæ fidei inveniri posse, in quibus syllaba ista producatur. Ineptus esset, quicunque ad MSS. in tali causa provocaret, cum nulla sit eorum auctoritas; id solum deprecor, ne quis contra hanc regulam eorum testimonio abutatur; MSS. enim neque alter alteri consentiunt, neque idem MS. sibi ipse per omnia constat. Quod si ea, quæ disputavi, vera sunt, planum est, in fine vocis addendam esse literam, quam addidi.' P. 10.

Respecting the propositions of this note, various objections present themselves to our minds; and these objections we shall propound most unreservedly and distinctly, nor with less confidence in the rectitude of our persuasions, than that which uniformly ratifies the decisions of the professor. After a statement of the arguments on both sides, our learned readers must form

those conclusions which appear to be suggested by the merits of the respective causes and the substantial evidence of *facts*.

1. Are we ingenuously willing to restore and preserve the true practice of the ancients, or will we resolutely determine, in this case also, 'to be wise above what is written?' What this practice was may be clearly ascertained, even at our distant period of time, and amidst such officious depravation of authorities, as far as the highest *moral presumption* can approach to certainty. By what peculiar dexterity of pronunciation the Greeks themselves contrived to remedy the shortness of the syllable, where the final *nu* is now employed to lengthen it, may be probably conjectured, but, like all other sounds of disused languages, cannot be known with accuracy, nor is indeed necessary or very important to be known. Remaining MSS, and their representatives, the earliest editions, are to us the only practical vouchers in this inquiry. When the professor, with artful anticipation, gravely informs his readers that *the authority of MSS is* NONE *in this case*, he not only exhibits a degree of assurance which is truly unpardonable, and resolves at all events by this self-complacent edict to cut the knot which he is unable to untie, but, in fact, tacitly surrenders his cause as utterly indefensible through any rational and legitimate deductions immediately connected with the question. As to his standing charge of *a deficiency in common sense*, or, in plainer language, of *idiotism*, on those who disparage and neglect the final *nu*,—a charge strictly applicable to most of the early editors, and to Musgrave, Brunck, and some others among the moderns,—our readers, on the result of the arguments, must judge on which party such a peevish reproach more particularly fastens. It will probably be found to recoil on the accuser. That all ancient MSS *originally* omitted this final letter may be most reasonably and convincingly inferred from the primary editions of the poets, and from existing MSS; but we must never fail to recollect the propensity of all transcribers to adjust their copies more or less by the standard of their own conceptions, and the measure of their own proficiency in learning; and this propensity induced them gradually to add the final *nu*, from a persuasion of its necessity to secure the requisite quantity of the verse; so that their progressive and accumulating officiousness made rapid advances, in a course of centuries, towards an entire obliteration of those traces by which this peculiarity might have been estimated and decided. Such an event can excite no surprise, however, when we observe a correspondent exemplification of it in the conduct of our professor. He not only inserts the *nu* in opposition to his Aldine edition and his MSS, when a *single* consonant succeeds, but when *two* are at hand to support the syllable, clenching this unhappy termination with most violent animosity, beyond

his predecessors, like STRENGH and FORCE in the Prometheus of Æschylus,

Αδαμαντινων δεσμων εν αρρηκτοις πεδαις.

2. Amidst the infinity of proofs which present themselves on this occasion, we shall only mention to our readers, and recommend to their especial consideration, the quotations from the poets in the old editions of the classics, and even in modern republications, where the editor has been a learned and conscientious scholar; (see a specimen in Wesseling's Diodorus Siculus, from the tragic poet Carcinus, in a fragment quoted in lib. v. sect. 5. of that author), and with them the various readings to Oppian's Halieutics, Potter's Lycophron, and Brunck's Apollonius Rhodius in particular. These varieties would have been unquestionably much more frequent than we find them, had not editors in general contented themselves with passing them over as *negligent errors*, utterly unworthy of distinct notification; a persuasion which, in conjunction with that disposition to correct after their own fancies, leaves us reason to congratulate ourselves that any indications at all of the ancient orthography should be remaining at this day. Thus, why the late copyists so frequently inserted the final *nu*, where it was actually wanting in their MSS, we can immediately apprehend; but their *omission* of this letter in such innumerable instances, surviving the incessant havoc of unfaithfulness, conceit, and indolence, even to this hour, if it were not omitted in the original MSS, is utterly inconceivable; and forms a presumption in favour of this practice, as the genuine usage of the ancients, founded on most evident and incontrovertible principles, immutable as Truth and Nature; and constitutes a problem, to which neither the professor, nor any other man alive, will be able to offer a solution, in consistency with their own persuasions and conduct, to the end of time. Till this solution, however, be attempted with success, a little more modesty of insinuation, and fewer licentious interpolations of unexceptionable documents, will not less become their boldness of assertion and imbecility of proof.

Ζευ πατερ, ᾳ μεν καλον ὑπερβιον ευχεταασθαι.

3. A further demonstration that the paragogic *nu* was employed by the ancients for no other purpose than that of preventing a *hiatus* between two concurring vowels, is manifest from this particularity: It never lengthens a syllable in the cæsural pauses of epic poetry, like every other vowel and consonant, when convenience may require: just as might be expected from an occasional expedient, destitute of all efficacy whatever on the quantity of syllables.

4. The professor's remarks on the doubtful syllables of such words as πολυχρυσος, επεκλωσαν, κεκλησθαι, and the like, is the

disingenuous remark of one who has resolved, at all events, to support a pre-conceived opinion. The fact is, such syllables are in reality made long much oftener than he is willing to allow; and the genuine reason why they are more frequently made short, is not a reason which assists his argument, but one of another nature, and better known to no man than to himself, from his superior insight into these subjects; namely, the *more frequent convenience of short syllables* in iambic verse, and the capacity of introducing such words into a greater variety of stations without detriment to the modulation of the numbers. Besides, as the short syllables, throughout the language, are confessedly less numerous than the long, our reply is equally pertinent with reference to dissyllables, such as τεκνον and πατρος, the examples specified by the professor. He tells us also, but with a degree of hesitation, suggested by his consciousness of difficulty in reconciling some specimens, which we could produce, to his hypothesis, 'that legitimate instances of a lengthened syllable at the end of a word, when the next word begins with two consonants, which would permit that syllable to be short, can *scarcely* be produced.' We are not disposed to contest this point pertinaciously with our learned editor. The rule is unquestionably very *general;* and the interference of very few indisputable examples only of the contrary prevents us from pronouncing it an *universal* canon.

Ver. 73. 'πως, ω ταλαινα, συ τε κασιγνητος τε σος
τλημων Ορεστης, μητρος ὁδε φονευς εφυ;

'Horum versuum sententia facilis, constructio impedita. Heathius ex scholiaste εχει pro εφυ. Sed vix puto scholiasten ita legisse; tantum exponit εφυ per εφυτε, et hoc per εχετε. Exempla phraseos, πως ειμι, attulit Musgravius, sed ex minus probatis auctoribus, Luciano, Æliano, Juliano. Addit scholiastes: αγνοουντες τινες το ὁδε αντι του ὁστις φασιν. εστι δε ὁδε δια μεσου δεικτικον. Fortasse illi ὁς legerunt. Nihil sane melius video, quam ut ita legatur, et hæc sit constructio, πως (εστε vel εχετε) συ τε κασιγνητος τε σος Ορεστης, ὁς εφυ μητρος φονευς;' P. 12.

What a storm is the professor raising in a bucket! Never was a simpler and more intelligible passage, if you remove but a single comma, thus:

πως, ω ταλαινα, συ τε, κασιγνητος τε σος
τλημων Ορεστης μητρος ὁδε φονευς εφυ;

No sort of peculiarity distinguishes this distich, unless, perchance, the collocation of the significant ὁδε a little out of its consecutive station, which is an arrangement too frequently recurring to excite hesitation or surprise, and may be reckoned by novices a singularity. The full construction of the passage, and the grammatical order of the words, are these: Πως, ω ταλαινα,

συ τε εφυς φονευς μητρος, κασιγνητος τε σος, τλημων Ορεστης ὁδε, εφυ φονευς μητρος; A misconception of such a clear unembarrassed expression of the poet's meaning were inexcusable even in a boy of tolerable proficiency in school discipline.

'ΧΟ. σιγα, σιγα contra metrum Ald. et infra 180. Vs. 145. ΗΛ. Ald. Pro λεπτον varia lectio in scholiis et in P. λευκον; sic et Dionysius Hal. in edd. sed in MSS. λεπτον. Λεπτον quoque Laërtius VII. 172. quod argumento ejus melius convenit, licet Illustrius, Laërtium exscribens, λευκον habeat; λευκον tamen magis poëticum videtur, ut infra λευκον ονυχα 949. Si hoc legis, σιγα, σιγα jungendum est cum τιθετε; si λεπτον præfers, σιγα, σιγα sententiam per se absolvit.' P. 16.

The professor is indebted for his remark to the scholiast, and candour might have led him, in this and many other instances, to acknowledge his obligations to his instructors. The distinction appears to our minds, however, injudiciously made by one, and inconsiderately adopted by the other. If the reading λεπτον be retained, there is no reason whatever to understand it *adverbially;* for the term may be very properly regarded, like some other equivalent words, as a suitable epithet of a *delicate female* foot. In the Anthologia, and elsewhere, ῥαδινος is frequently thus applied, and in Hesychius we find these glosses very correspondent to our sentiments, Ῥαδινην· λεπτην. Ῥαδινον· λεπτον, ἁπαλον.

Ver. 147. 'ιδ' ατρεμαιαν ὡς ὑποροφον
φερω βοαν.'

The Latin version and usual acceptation of this passage are very strange, and bordering on absurdity and nonsense. Musgrave has given a long and learned note upon it, but without much illumination of its meaning. Let us listen to our professor: 'Sensus videtur esse; Edo vocem, *qualis est submissior calami sonus.*' But of what possible use are such vague remarks as these, where no attempt is made to develope the genius of the expression, and inability is but concealed under the disguise of dark and general observation? One exposition of the scholiast always appeared to us both simple and, on the whole, sufficiently satisfactory: Τινες φασι βοην ὑποροφον, την μη δυναμενην εκτος τυ οικυ ακουεσθαι. Hence we may descry (which is the important desideratum in all interpretation) a connexion between the formation of the word and its more remote and general meaning. A sound not *audible* out of doors is a *confined* and *gentle sound.* But, perhaps, the rationale of the term is more clearly and directly seen from considering a sound *under the roof,* or *within doors,* in contrast with one *openly divulged in the streets;* and the Greek word will also very well accommodate itself as allusive to a sound under the *roof* of the *mouth,* as it were; so low and still, as scarcely to be enunciated beyond what Homer calls the ἑρκος

ὀδοντων, or the *lips*. The contrast, which we wish to point out, may be illustrated by Matthew x. 27. Whether, however, we be right in this instance, or no, our readers must determine; but till words are thus traced up to their *picture-meanings*, no suitable idea can be presented to the mind, and explanation, falsely so called, from whatever quarter it may come, is puerile and useless. We interpret, therefore: 'Observe, I utter a still voice as in a *private* room;' namely, with a view to *secrecy*. The nature of the passage, however, consisting of broken sentences, descriptive of *trepidation* and *anxiety*, leaves a doubt here, which would not embarrass the ordinary dialogue, whether the poet might not intend a double epithet; in which case the particle ως has no such power of *comparison*. On this supposition another translation is more proper: 'Observe *how* I utter a steady tranquil voice.'

But, whilst we are in this track, we will point out to the student the supreme elegance of the word ατρεμαιαν also: and the editor would have performed a good service to his *studious youth* had he saved us this trouble. Ατρεμαια βοα is a noise so gentle as to excite no *tremulous* undulations in the surrounding objects: on which point many beauties might be produced from the poets of both languages; but our reward for these illustrations would be nothing less than the nick-name of *hot-headed* prattlers from our self-sufficient editor; as may be seen from his note on ver. 626 of this play.

συ γαρ τ' Ald. sed το τ' εμον cum meliori parte MSS. το δ' εμον ex membr. Brunck. qui cavet nihil acrius, quam ne τε post ουτε aut τε sequatur.' P. 20.

The professor's reading we pronounce perfectly just; and Brunck, in this and similar instances, is as certainly mistaken. In such connections δε and ωδε never can follow τε and ωτε, agreeably to the unexceptionable practice of the best writers, and the genius of language itself. We recollect to have given a hint to this purpose in our animadversions on the Hecuba.

Ver. 209. 'ποθεν ποτ' ηλθον δευρο; πως δ' αφικομην;

'ποθεν, ποτ' male edd. pleræque. ποτ' tantum fortius interrogat, non diversam quæstionem facit, ut ποι ποθ' infra 272.' P. 21.

This effort also at explanation is partly childish, and partly inefficient: *childish*, as solving a doubt respecting ποτε, by which we presume no reader was perplexed; and *inefficient*, or rather inaccurate, in giving this *vigour* to the word in reference to its interrogatory application. An English student will probably arrive at some conception of this particle in such an employment of it from a plain translation of the verse: 'Whence *after all* came I hither? And by what means am I come?' The profes-

sor's efforts at interpretation are as superficial and inadequate, as his exertions, in his own proper department of severe and accurate criticism, are discriminating, judicious, and profound. So just is the moralising reflexion of an ingenious and entertaining poet:

Ου γαρ ἀμ' ανθρωποισι θεοι τελεσσιν ἁπαντα.

The professor is in general very sparing of his words, and from this propensity to didactical conciseness may arise his inaptness at illustration; but where an unfortunately dull or ridiculously vain brother in criticism can be *roasted* to advantage, he grudges no superfluity of language in letting loose his sarcastical wit on the fraternity. We will entertain our readers with one specimen of his talents in this way.

'Sic Ald. MSS. et Stob. Ecl. Eth. p. 197. ed. Canter. Sed Συ τοι Plutarch. t. II. p. 88. C. Mox φρονει pro λεγε habent Stobæi codices; recte tamen vertit Canterus, *loquere*; "λαλει pro φρονει posui," inquit Grotius, "conjectura ductus; nam sequitur φρονει." Sed cum πραττε pro φρονει det Harl. ex ejus et Stobæi conjunctione bellissimus exsurgit versus, quem Clericus, Reiskius, Trillerus, si viverent, amplecterentur; quemque amplectentur, sat scio, Graiæ gentis decora, Ammonius et Invernizius. Και μη μονον φρονει, αλλα και πρασσε ταδε.' P. 24.

We cannot, however, but confess our astonishment at such contemptible trash; such waste of time and paper without one glimmering of genuine humour, one ray of useful information! Such a disposition to contemptuous sneering would be dearly purchased of our professor by his *studious youth* at the price of half his critical accomplishments. Reiske, for example, was, no doubt, most lamentably defective in metrical knowledge; but, in his prose editions of the classics, he has displayed an insight into the genius of Greek composition, and a quick conception of an author's meaning, far surpassing any documents of this nature in any performances of our editor, and, indeed, exceeded by no other scholar. No man will find either his interest or his credit in treating such characters with contempt. Let us accept with cheerfulness and gratitude their several contributions, according to their various accomplishments, to the cause of literature, and draw the veil of extenuation and candour over their peculiar weaknesses and misconceptions.

V. 288. 'και νυν ανακαλυπτ', ω κασιγνητον καρα.'

In a word of this character we will not dispute the neutral signification, though we should prefer the insertion of the pronoun, which has been lost in so many instances:

και νυν σ' ανακαλυπτ'——.

But let us hear the decision of the professor:

'Hanc lectionem, in qua omnes MSS. consentiunt, retinere malui, quam cum Brunckio κασιγνητη substituere. Quidni enim ανακαλυπτε tam bene pro ανακαλυπτου, subaudito pronomine, ponatur, quam καταπαυσας pro καταπαυσαμενος Hec. 912. επειγε pro επειγου infra 788 (ubi MS. unus επειγου) et alibi. εγειρε pro εγειρου Iph. A. 626? Duo posteriora loca eodem consilio citat Musgravius, cujus sententiam male cepisse videtur Brunckius, quasi is putasset ου elidi posse. Contra verba quædam ex neutrali transitivam induunt significationem, ut εκπτησσειν, ῥειν, Hec. 181. 532. quæ insani esset solicitare.' P. 27.

Thus every man, we see, who is not fortunate enough to coincide with our learned editor in opinion, is reprobated as an arrant *bedlamite*, fit only for Dr. Willis and a strait waistcoat! He denounces them in the words of Horace:

———interdicto huic omne adimat jus
Prætor, et ad sanos abeat tutela propinquos.

But what greater arrogance can be conceived than such unsubstantiated censures, such laconic decisions, without a single example to authorise his dogmatism? However, the want of discrimination in his instances, as in εκπτησσειν and ῥειν, most clearly demonstrates to us, either a fixed determination to defend in all events what he has already published, or an ignorance of that quality which invests some neutral verbs with a transitive signification: and here we relinquish this subject for the present.

Ver. 301. 'και θανειν.' This preferable reading might have been confirmed also by the authority of the paraphrast.

Ver. 346 is thus quoted by Eustathius on the Iliad:

ω χιλιοναυν ΣΤΟΛΟΝ ὁρμησας:

and with ὁρμησας we think στολον more agreeable than στρατον, the common reading.

Ver. 373. 'ὡστ' εκ αν αυτον γνωρισαιμ' αν ειςιδων.'

This repetition of the particle αν in Greek authors is equally singular and aukward; and yet there are instances of indubitable legitimacy in this respect, though, as appears to us, much to their discredit. In the present example we would gladly relieve the clumsiness of this expedient by the reading of the paraphrase:

ὡσΤ' εκ ΕΤ' αυτον γνωρισαιμ' αν ειςιδων.

Ver. 538. 'ὁπου σε μελλω σην τε λυπησειν φρενα.

'Elegans est Musgravii conjectura; ὁπου γε μελλω σην τι λυπησειν φρενα, neque a verisimilitudine abhorret; ὁπου γε enim habent H. R. et in loco, quem ex Phœnissis 397 citat, μη τι σην δακω φρενα, MS. Leid. μη τε. Frustra Brunckius accumulat γνωτα κουκ αγνωτα, ακλητος ουτε κληθεις, ὁμαιμου και κασιγνητης, πατερων και τεκοντων, ὁ φυσας χὡ τεκων παληρ, εσχατος ὑστερας τ' εχων πωλους, exemplis

diversi generis permistis. Vulgatam tamen defendet Sophocles Aj. 1147. *οὕτω δε και σε και το σον λαβρον στομα Σμικρου νεφους ταχ' αν τις εκπνευσας μεγας Χειμων κατασβεσειε την πολλην βοην.*' P. 44.

The professor very justly rejects Brunck's illustration of this peculiar redundancy, as wholly trifling and impertinent. His own vindication of it from the Ajax of Sophocles wears more appearance of pertinency, but in reality does not reach the mark:

———————————*πεπυμενα βαζεις,*
Αργειων βασιλευ· αταρ ϑ τελος ἱκεο μυθων.

When we tell a man that we will repress *him, and his mouth,* we readily understand, by this phraseology, his *designs* and his *reproaches:* a mode of expression in which no superfluity is seen, because the *mouth* is *part* of the *man:* but to speak of giving uneasiness at the same time to the *man* and his *mind,* when the *mind* makes the *man,* is to affect the *man* and *himself:* a singularity of speech which distinguishes the passage under contemplation from that alleged by the editor. In our judgement, therefore, more applicable exemplifications may be found in Homer: as in Iliad X. 122:

Αλλα *τιη* ΜΟΙ *ταυτα φιλος* ΔΙΕΛΕΞΑΤΟ ΘΥΜΟΣ;

And again in p. 90 of the same poem:

Οχϑησας δ' *αρα* ΕΙΠΕ *προς ὀν μεγαλητορα* ΘΥΜΟΝ:

in which example a similar *distinction* takes place between the *man* and his *mind.*—Another instance, amidst many, may also be given, not unseasonably we think, from the Odyssey, Υ. 18:

Τετλαϑι δη, ΚΡΑΔΙΗ· *και κυντερον αλλο ποτ' ετλης·*

as the *heart* also is sometimes used for the *intelligent principle,* and for the *man himself.* Indeed a passage from Euripides himself may be adduced with much propriety: it is in his Medea, ver. 1056:

μη δητα, ΘΥΜΕ, *μη* ΣΥ *γ'* ΕΡΓΑΣΕΙ *ταδε*
ΕΑΣΟΝ *αυτες,* Ω ΤΑΛΑΝ· ΦΕΙΣΑΙ *τεκνων·*
εκει μεϑ' ΗΜΩΝ *ζωντες ευφρανεσι* ΣΕ.

———

But we must reserve our remaining observations for the ensuing number.

ART. II.—*The Periplûs of the Erythrêan Sea. Part the First, Containing, an Account of the Navigation of the Ancients, from the Sea of Suez to the Coast of Zanguebar. With Dissertations. By William Vincent, D.D.* 4*to.* 1*l.* 1*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

THE comparison of ancient and modern geography has become a favourite and interesting study, and is now conducted upon far more rational grounds than at any preceding period, and with all the exuberance of recent knowledge and discovery. The first restorers of geography imagined they had done their duty when they had scattered ancient names over all our hemisphere, and even America found the classical term of Atlantis. Cluverius and Cellarius contributed to strengthen the old system, and their errors are so gross that it is shameful to put either into the hands of youth. So dependent is geography on mathematical improvements and the precision of the latest observations and discoveries, that a book or a map is commonly valuable in proportion as it is recent, and every old map is an antiquated fable. Nicholas Sanson, the father, first began gradually to improve ancient geography by modern accounts. The example was followed by Delisle and the illustrious D'Anville, who himself left many errors to rectify; and when Mr. Gibbon pronounces his work perfect, we can only say that he had never studied the subject. D'Anville has been ably succeeded by Gosselin; by Hartmann and others in Germany; and in our own country by Rennell, Vincent, and several competitors.

The learned and ingenious author of this work has already evinced such talents for geographical disquisition, that we opened it in the certainty of receiving at once great entertainment and instruction. In his dedication to the king, Dr. Vincent justly congratulates that reign which ascertained that an entrance into the Pacific Ocean by a passage either in the north-west or the north-east is impracticable, and that the existence of a great southern continent was only supported by theory. The preface expresses that this work, which contains much disquisition upon a brief narrative, has rather exceeded the author's calculation and design. The doctor then replies to some criticisms on his former work, particularly against his use of Oriental etymology, which he has now abandoned, and, we think, wisely; for etymology rarely aspires to scientific certainty; and the Oriental orthography in particular is so lax, that the uncertainty is often increased to embarrassment.

'In the Voyage of Nearchus I traced the intercourse with India to its source, a subject, as it has been called, "barren, but important:" and I now prosecute the same inquiry down to its completion, by the discoveries of Gama, under difficulties still more discouraging to an author. A work, relieved neither by the incidents of a voyage, or [*nor*]

the occurrences of a journal, varied by no personal dangers or escapes, animated by no personal exertion or ability, however it may abound in information, can presume but little upon its powers of attraction. Fidelity, labour, and research, it is true, have their share of merit; but the approbation which they claim must be derived from those who can appreciate the value of talents which, though common to all, are exercised only by the few.

'Research, indeed, affords a pleasure peculiar to itself; it presents an idea of discovery to the imagination of the inquirer; an intellectual pleasure, in which he flatters himself others will be desirous to participate; and which, if he can communicate with satisfaction proportionate to his own, publication is not merely the indulgence of a propensity, but the exercise of a social duty.' P. x.

In proceeding we wished that the learned author had prefixed a table of contents, which will, we suppose, appear with the second part of this work, in which the pages are to be numbered along with the first, and which is to contain the Arabian and East-Indian navigation of the Erythrêan Sea, or what is now styled the Indian Ocean.

We shall, according to our usual plan on such occasions, first give a general idea of the work, and then return to the consideration of some particular passages. The preliminary disquisitions contain an account of the Periplûs, interspersed with illustrations of the knowledge which Homer, Herodotus, Ctesias, and some other ancients, possessed concerning India. In the second book the author proceeds to a particular illustration of the navigation of the ancients, from Myos Hormus in the Gulf of Arabia to the promontory of Rhapta on the coast of Africa, with accounts of the several places mentioned, thus connecting the discoveries of the ancients along the north-east coast of Africa with those of Vasco de Gama. The second part is also to consist of two books, in which the discoveries of the Arabs and Hindus will be displayed.

After some remarks on the imperfection of ancient navigation, the doctor unfolds his design of filling up the interval between the voyage of Nearchus and the discoveries of the Portuguese, assuming for a basis the Periplûs of the Erythrêan Sea, in commenting on which work sufficient opportunities arise to introduce all the particulars connected with the general design.

'The Periplûs of the Erythrêan Sea is the title prefixed to a work which contains the best account of the commerce carried on from the Red Sea and the coast of Africa to the East Indies, during the time that Egypt was a province of the Roman empire.

'This work was first edited from the press of Froben at Basle, in 1533, with a prefatory epistle by Gelenius; but from what manuscript I have never been able to discover; neither is it known whether any manuscript of it is now in existence. The edition of Stuckius at Zurich, in 1577, and Hudson in 1698, at Oxford, are both from the printed copy, which is notoriously incorrect, and their emendations

remove few of the material difficulties; besides these, there is a translation in the collection of Ramusio, faithful indeed, as all his translations are, but without any attempt to amend the text, or any comment to explain it; he has prefixed a discourse however of considerable merit and much learning, which I have made use of wherever it could be of service, as I have also of the commentaries of Stuckius, Hudson, and Dodwell; but the author with whom I am most in harmony, upon the whole, is Vossius, who in his edition of Pomponius Mela has touched upon some of these points, and I wish we had the ground of his opinion in detail.

'The Erythrêan Sea is an appellation given in the age of the author to the whole expanse of ocean reaching from the coast of Africa to the utmost boundary of ancient knowledge on the east; an appellation, in all appearance, deduced from their entrance into it by the straits of the Red Sea, styled Erythra by the Greeks, and not excluding the Gulph of Persia, to which the fabulous history of a king Erythras is more peculiarly appropriate.

'Who the author was, is by no means evident, but certainly not Arrian of Nicomedia, who wrote the history of Alexander, whose writings have been the subject of my meditations for many years, and whose name I should have been happy to prefix to the present work; HE was a man of eminence by birth, rank, talents, and education, while the author before us has none of these qualities to boast; but veracity is a recommendation which will compensate for deficiency in any other respect: this praise is indisputably his due, and to display this in all its parts is the principal merit of the commentary I have undertaken.

'Arrian of Nicomedia has left us the Paraplûs of Nearchus, and the Periplûs of the Euxine Sea, and was a name of celebrity to the early editors of Greek manuscripts, long before the work now under contemplation was known; it is not impossible, therefore, if the Periplûs of the Erythrêan Sea was found anonymous, that it was attributed to an author whose name on similar subjects was familiar. But if Arrian be the real name of the author now under contemplation, and not fictitious, he appears from internal evidence to have been a Greek, a native of Egypt, or a resident in that country, and a merchant of Alexandria: he manifestly sailed on board the fleet from Egypt, as far as the Gulph of Cambay, if not farther; and, from circumstances that will appear hereafter, is prior to Arrian of Nicomedia by little less than a century. His work has long been appreciated by geographers, and is worthy of high estimation as far as the author can be supposed personally to have visited the countries he describes; some scattered lights also occur even in regard to the most distant regions of the east, which are valuable as exhibiting the first dawn of information upon the subject.

'Of this work no adequate idea could be formed by a translation; but a comparison of its contents with the knowledge of India, which we have obtained since Gama burst the barrier of discovery, cannot but be acceptable to those who value geography as a science, or delight in it as a picture of the world.

'The Periplûs itself is divided into two distinct parts, one comprehending the coast of Africa from Myos Hormus to Rhapta; the

other, commencing from the same point, includes the coast of Arabia, both within the Red Sea and on the Ocean; and then passing over to Guzerat runs down the coast of Malabar to Ceylon. It is the first part, containing the account of Africa, which I now present to the public; a work which, perhaps, I ought never to have undertaken, but which I hope to complete with the addition of the Oriental part, (if blessed with a continuance of life and health,) by devoting to this purpose the few intervals which can be spared from the more important duties in which I am engaged. The whole will be comprehended in four books; the first consisting of preliminary matter, and the other three allotted respectively to Africa, Arabia, and India, the three different countries which form the subject matter of the Periplûs itself. In the execution of this design I shall encroach but little on the ground already occupied by doctor Robertson; but to Harris, and his learned editor doctor Campbell, I have many obligations. I follow the same arrangement in my consideration of the Greek authors, borrowing sometimes from their materials, but never bound by their decisions: where I am indebted I shall not be sparing of my acknowledgments; and where I dissent, sufficient reasons will be assigned. I could have wished for the company of such able guides farther on my journey; but I soon diverge from their track, and must explore my way like an Arab in the desert, by a few slight marks which have escaped the ravages of time and the desolation of war.

'To a nation now mistress of those Indian territories which were known to Alexander only by report, and to the Greeks of Egypt only by the intervention of a commerce restricted to the coast, it may be deemed an object of high curiosity at least, if not of utility, to trace back the origin and progress of discovery, and to examine the minute and accidental causes which have led to all our knowledge of the East; causes, which have by slow and imperceptible degrees weakened all the great powers of Asia, which have dissolved the empires of Persia and Hindostan, and have reduced the Othmans to a secondary rank; while Europe has arisen paramount in arts and arms, and Britain is the ruling power in India, from Ceylon to the Ganges:—a supremacy this, envied undoubtedly by our enemies, and reprobated by the advocates of our enemies. Anquetil du Perron and Bernoulli exclaim at the injustice of our conquests; but who ever asserted that conquest was founded upon justice? The Portuguese, the Hollanders, and the French, were all intruders upon the natives, to the extent of their ability, as well as the British. India in no age since the irruptions of the Tartars and Mahomedans has known any power but the power of the sword; and great as the usurpation of the Europeans may have been, it was originally founded in necessity. It is not my wish to justify the excess; but there are nations with whom there can be no intercourse without a pledge for the security of the merchant. The Portuguese, upon their first arrival at Calicut, could not trade but by force: it was in consequence of this necessity that all the Europeans demanded or extorted the liberty of erecting forts for their factories; and this privilege, once granted, led the way to every encroachment which ensued. I notice this, because the same danger produced the same effects from the beginning. It will appear from the Periplûs, that the Arabians in that age had fortified their

factories on the coast of Africa, and the Portuguese historians mention the same precaution used in the same country by the Arabs in the age of Gama. From this slender origin all the conquests of the Europeans in India have taken their rise, till they have grown into a consequence which it was impossible to foresee, and which it is now impossible to control. No nation can abandon its conquests without ruin; for it is not only positive subtraction from one scale, but preponderancy accumulated in the other. No power can be withdrawn from a single province, but that it would be occupied by a rival upon the instant. Nothing remains but to moderate an evil which cannot be removed, and to regulate the government by the interests of the governed. This imports the conquerors as much as the conquered; for it is a maxim never to be forgotten, that the Portuguese lost by their avarice the empire they had acquired by their valour; but of this too much:—our present business is not with the result of discovery, but its origin.' P. 3.

Our learned author then proceeds to examine the faint knowledge of the Greeks concerning India prior to the age of Alexander. Homer seems to have had an indistinct idea that there were Ethiopians, or people of a black complexion, to the east of Africa, whom Dr. Vincent supposes to belong to the south of Hindustan. The notions of Herodotus are also not a little obscure, as we may suppose when he asserts that the Indus runs to the east; and the accounts of Ctesias are interspersed with such gross fable, that he has incurred one general charge of falsehood. Nor is the doctor inclined to lend much credit to the accounts of Iambúlus, though Harris or Dr. Campbell, who published his voyages under that name, be inclined to support his authority.

'Agatharchides, the next object of our consideration, is an author of far different estimation; he was president of the Alexandrian library, and is always mentioned with respect by Strabo, Pliny, and Diodôrus. His work on the Erythrêan or Red Sea is preserved in an extract of Photius, and copied almost in the same terms, but not without intermixture, by Diodôrus. Diodôrus indeed professes to derive his information from the royal commentaries, and original visitors of the countries he describes; but that he copies Agatharchides it evident, by a comparison of this part of his work with the extract of Photius; or, perhaps, considering Agatharchides as librarian, he conceived that his work was founded on the commentaries or archives of the Alexandrian depository. Strabo likewise follows Agatharchides in almost all that relates to Ethiopia, the countries south of Egypt, and the western coast of Arabia; or rather, as Wesseling has observed, with his usual accuracy, both copy Artemidorus of Ephesus, who is the copyist of Agatharchides.

'It is necessary to pay more attention to this author, as he is apparently the original source from whence all the historians drew, previous to the discovery of the monsoon; his work forms an epoch in the science; and when Pliny comes to speak of the discoveries on the coast of Malabar in his own age, and adds, that the names he men-

tions are new, and not to be found in previous writers, we ought to consider him as speaking of all those who had followed the authority of the Macedonians, or the school of Alexandria, of which, in this branch of science, Eratosthenes and Agatharchides were the leaders.

'Eratosthenes was librarian of Alexandria under Ptolemy Euergetes I. and died at the age of eighty-one, 194, A. C. He was rather an astronomer and mathematician than a geographer, and is honoured with the title of surveyor of the earth, as the first astronomer who measured a degree of a great circle, and drew the first parallel of latitude, the sublime attempt on which all the accuracy of the science depends.

'It appears from Strabo and Pliny, that Eratosthenes speaks of Meroë, India, and the Thinæ, and of the latter as placed incorrectly in the more ancient maps; how this nation, which was the boundary of knowledge in the age of Ptolemy, (and which, if it does not intimate China, is at least as distant as the golden Chersonese of Malacca,) found its way into charts more early than Eratosthenes, will be considered in its proper place; but his knowledge of Meroë or Abyssinia is derived from Dalion, Aristocreon, and Bion, who had been sent by Philadelphus, or his successors, into that country, or from Timosthenes, who sailed down the coast of Africa as low as Cernè. His information concerning India must be deduced from the Macedonians, but his information is confined on the subject of Oriental commerce; the spherical figure of the earth seems to be the grand truth he was desirous to establish, and his geographical inquiries were perhaps rather the basis of a system, than a delineation of the habitable world.

'Agatharchides, according to Blair, must, though younger, have been contemporary with Eratosthenes; he was a native of Cnidus in Caria, and flourished 177, A. C. But Dodwell brings him down much lower, to 104, A. C. which can hardly be true, if Artemidorus copied his work, for the date of Artemidorus is attributed to 104, A. C. also, the same year which Dodwell gives to Agatharchides.' P. 24.

Dr. Vincent proceeds to observe several circumstances in this author's account of Abyssinia, which evince its general veracity; and he afterwards illustrates his descriptions of some other countries. It is shown that there was no intercourse between Egypt and India till the voyage of Hippalus.

'If it should now be inquired how the commerce with India could be in this state so late as the reign of Ptolemy Philometor, or why the discoveries of Nearchus had not in all this time been prosecuted? the answer is not difficult. The fleets from Egypt found the commodities of India in Arabia, and the merchants contented themselves with buying in that market, without entering upon new adventures to an unknown coast. There is every reason to suppose that Sabêa had been the centre of this commerce long prior to the discoveries of Nearchus, and the age of Alexander; and it is highly probable that the Arabians had, even previous to that period, ventured across the Ocean with the monsoon. That they reached India is certain, for Indian commodities found their way into Egypt, and there is no conveyance of them so obvious as by means of Arabia and the Red Sea.

The track of Arabian navigators is undoubtedly marked along the coast of Gadrosia before Nearchus ventured to explore it, for the names he found there are many of them Arabick; and if conjecture in such case be allowable, I should suppose that they kept along the coast of Gadrosia to Guadel or Possem, and then stood out to sea for the coast of Malabar. My reason for supposing this, is, that Nearchus found a pilot at Possem, which implies previous navigation, and adds, that from that cape to the Gulph of Persia the coast was not so obscure as from the Indus to the cape.' p. 37.

'The discovery of Hippalus opens a scene entirely new to our contemplation; and if it has appeared that hitherto there are only two sources of information, the Macedonians and Agatharchides; if it has been shewn that all the authors between Agatharchides and the discovery, speak the same language; it will now be still more evident, that a new era commences at this point, and that the Periplûs, Pliny, and Ptolemy are as uniform in one system as their predecessors were in another, previous to the discovery.

'Dodwell has observed, with his usual acuteness, that it is no proof that the Periplûs is contemporary with the age of Pliny, because he mentions the same sovereigns, in the different countries of which it treats; for he adds, Ptolemy notices the very same, Ceprobotas in Limyricè and Pandíon in Malabar. He supposes, therefore, that the Periplûs copied Pliny or Pliny's authorities, and that the same princes might be reigning from the time of Vespasian to the reign of Adrian. But would not this correspondence of the three be equally consistent, if we suppose them all to have but one source of information? Dodwell would subscribe to this in regard to Pliny and Ptolemy, whose age is known, but he refuses this solution to that of the Periplûs, the date of which he chooses to bring down as low as Verus. Of this more in its proper place.

'The truth is, that there are no data for fixing the discovery of Hippalus with precision. It is certainly subsequent to Strabo, whose death is placed anno 25. P. C. for Strabo who was in Egypt with Elius Gallus must have heard of it, and to all appearance it must have been later than the accident which happened to the freedman of Annius Plocamus, who, while he was collecting the tribute on the coast of Arabia, was caught by the monsoon and carried over to the island of Ceylon. This happened in the reign of Claudius, under whom Plocamus was farmer of the revenue in the Red Sea. The reign of Claudius commences in the year 41 of our era, and ends in 54. Let us assume the middle of his reign, or the year 47, for this transaction, and as Pliny dedicates his work to Titus the son of Vespasian, if we take the middle of Vespasian's reign it coincides with the year 73. This reduces the space for inquiry within the limits of twenty-six years. From these we may detract the first years of Vespasian, which were too turbulent for attention to commerce, with the two years of Galba, Otho, and Vitellius; Nero reigned fourteen, and in the early part of his reign, or the six last of Claudius, the date might be fixed with the greatest probability, because, if we suppose the return of the freedman of Plocamus, the embassy that accompanied him, or the knowledge he acquired to be a cause, or in any degree connected with

the discovery, this space confined to about ten years is the most consistent of all others to allot to this purpose. Another fact connected with this is, the profusion of Nero in cinnamon and aromaticks, at the funeral of Poppæa. An extravagance, wanton as it is, which bespeaks something like a direct importation of the material. And we are likewise informed by Pliny, that he sent two centurions from Egypt up into Ethiopia to obtain a knowledge of the interior; an inquiry naturally attached to the discoveries on the coast.

'The usual date attributed to the discovery of Hippalus is the reign of Claudius. Dodwell and Harris are both of this opinion, and the latter, or rather Dr. Campbell his editor, has treated this subject so ably, that if it were not necessary for the illustration of the work before us, it would have been sufficient to refer to his inquiries, rather than to tread the ground again which he has occupied. Let us assume then the seventh year of Claudius, answering to the forty-seventh of the Christian era, for the discovery of Hippalus, and the next object of inquiry will naturally be the date of the work which we are to examine.' P. 44.

Dr. Vincent then discusses the period in which the Periplûs was composed. Dodwell conceives that the work was compiled by some Alexandrian from the journal of Hippalus. The doctor supposes that it was written about the tenth year of Nero, but his arguments are far from amounting to demonstration. He ingeniously infers, p. 63, that there had been an intercourse between Egypt and Hindustan preceding the light of history, and that the Egyptian Thebes owed its opulence and splendor to this cause. The peculiar circumstances of Egypt under the Ptolemys and under the Roman domination have also engaged our author's attention at the close of this first book.

The minute detail concerning the names and situations of places on the Arabian Gulf will little interest our readers, and we shall refer the learned to the work itself, which will generally be found satisfactory, reserving our remarks for a more important topic, the doctor's idea of the knowledge of the ancients in the north-east of Africa.

(To be continued.)

ART. III.—*General Zoölogy, or Systematic Natural History. By George Shaw, M.D. F.R.S. With Plates from the first Authorities and most select Specimens, engraved principally by Mr. Heath. Vol. I. in Two Parts.* 8vo. *Large Paper* 3*l.* 3*s. Small Paper* 1*l.* 16*s. Boards.* Kearsley. 1800.

ANIMALS have been so often described, systems of natural history have accumulated so rapidly within the last twenty years, that we were startled at the appearance of a new attempt, and, notwithstanding the character and abilities of the author, opened the work with an expectation only of the *crambe recocta* of

Buffon and Pennant. It ought to have occurred to us that Dr. Shaw's plan was more extensive, and that his situation in the Museum was peculiarly advantageous to such an attempt. In the progress of many years, and at a period when commerce and enterprise have contributed to extend, in a great degree, our knowledge of the different regions and their productions, to collect and combine the novelties with the ancient stock is necessary and highly beneficial; nor can it have escaped the reflexion of any person who considers even the state of zoölogy, that much remains in the minuter parts, where labour cannot be rewarded with its merited share of praise or fame; we mean in the specific characters. In the comparative anatomy also, in the physiology of many animals, numerous discoveries have been made; but, with respect to insects and fish, the English reader has as yet no adequate guide to assist his inquiries. These are circumstances which render a systematic natural history by an able author not only useful but highly necessary. The abilities of Dr. Shaw have been too long known and too frequently tried to be doubted, and, on a careful examination of this first volume, our expectations have been more than gratified: the descriptions are most accurately discriminated, the accounts of animals comprehensive and satisfactory; nor does our recollection furnish a single circumstance lately discovered respecting the subjects of this volume not noticed and properly explained; while another, and no slight advantage of this system, is the clear precision and comprehensive brevity of the language. The advertisement we shall transcribe.

'In the course of this work will be comprised the whole of what is termed zoölogy, or the history of the animal world. It will commence with quadrupeds, and will proceed, in systematic order, through all the remaining branches, viz. birds, amphibia, fishes, insects, vermes, testaceous animals, zoöphytes, &c. The number of volumes will probably amount to ten or twelve.

'The Linnæan arrangement, with some occasional variations, will in general be pursued, as on the whole the most eligible; though his arrangement of quadrupeds may to many appear, at first sight, not quite so easy and natural as that of Mr. Pennant.'

In the little which Dr. Shaw has said of his work, he remarks that it does not appear an easy task to improve on the systems of Buffon and Pennant, but by introducing the Linnéan arrangement, the correction of errors in the synonyms, the addition of proper specific characters, and the introduction of newly-discovered species.

'Of the *generic* and *specific* characters, but more particularly the latter, it should be observed, that implicit faith is not always to be placed in them. They are highly useful in a general view, but should merely be regarded in that light, and cannot be considered as in every instance strictly and absolutely exact. It is farther to be observed,

that the English specific characters in the present work are commonly so rendered as to be somewhat fuller or more particular than the Latin; from which it will also be perceived that they occasionally vary a little. This was necessary, in order to accommodate them to the purpose of general readers.

'With respect to figures, those highly important accompaniments to a work of this kind, no care has been spared to give such as convey the clearest and most accurate ideas of the animals themselves. Where Buffon's figures were judged unexceptionable, they have been admitted: others are introduced from publications of the first respectability, from original drawings, or from those rich repositories of science, the British and Leverian Museums.

'The talents of the engraver to whose care they have been committed are too well known to require particular commendation.' p. viii.

Dr. Shaw has not, however, given himself the full credit which he merits. The specific characters are very often corrected in important particulars, and many additions are made to almost every article, either from his own observations or those of the most modern travellers.

In our examination of this work we must not stop to notice every change or every addition; it will be sufficient to point out the new species, and probably some of the more important improvements. The first part of this volume contains the primates and bruta, the second the feræ. We could have wished, however, that, besides the alphabetical index prefixed, a systematic table of contents had been subjoined, as Dr. Shaw has not implicitly followed the order of the genera in the last (Gmelin's) edition of the 'System of Nature.'

The whole of the monkey tribe (simia) is described with singular precision; much common obscurity is cleared in many of the species, and the synonyms are often corrected. Camelli's own account of the Philippine monkey (S. Syrichta L.) is introduced, and it appears probably a species of lemur. We observe, in this part of the work, more than one instance of the advantage of the minutely-descriptive language of Linné. It has often corrected the inaccuracies of Buffon in his boasted delineations, which have been represented as speaking to the eye, viz. his engravings.

The genus lemur follows—a tribe of animals which certainly connect the monkeys with the other genera of primates, by the similarity of some species with those of the simia, and of others with the colugo, which unites the latter with the bats. In the genus lemur (macauco) we find no new species. The remarkable distribution of the arteries in the extremities of the L. tardigradus, described by Mr. Carlisle in the 'Philosophical Transactions,' is inserted; and the description of the manners of the same animal observed by sir W. Jones is added from the 'Asiatic

Researches.' M. Geoffroy's new and ingenious arrangement of the species of lemur is subjoined.

The genus colugo is separated from the lemures, on the authority of Geoffroy, who first examined its teeth. It is the lemur volans of Linné; but this naturalist had never seen the head. In a natural, as well as in a systematic view, it is undoubtedly a separate genus.

The different species of bat (vespertilio) are well described; one new species only is added, viz. the pit-nosed bat, from Schreber, viz. 'V. caudatus, fossulâ frontali transversâ.'

Of the second order, 'bruta,' the first genus is the sloth (bradypus); of this there are no new species. In confirmation, however, of Mr. Carlisle's opinion, that the remarkable distribution of the arteries was connected with the habits of the animal, we find the following observations.

'In Mr. Carlisle's description of the remarkable disposition of the trunks of the subclavian and iliac arteries in the lemur tardigradus, he very properly observed, that "it would be of some importance in physiology to ascertain whether the other slow-moving quadrupeds have any peculiar arrangement of the arteries of their limbs," the single fact above recorded being hardly sufficient for the foundation of any theoretical explanation of the slow movement of the muscles. The British Museum afforded an opportunity of investigating this particular in other slow-moving quadrupeds, and Mr. Carlisle, at my request, examined the arteries of the bradypus tridactylus, of all quadrupeds yet known the slowest in its movements; when the same remarkable distribution of vessels presented itself, both in the upper and lower limbs; and the small divisions of the artery, forming the surrounding cylinder, were still more numerous than in the slow lemur, viz. not less than 60 or 65, and in the lower limbs, at least, as many: these small cylinders were also connected by several lateral or anastomosing branches. We then opened a specimen of the bradypus didactylus, an animal far less slow in its motions than the tridactylus. In this species a distribution indistinctly approaching to that above described was discovered, but with much fewer divisions, and more approaching to the usual distribution in other quadrupeds. Lastly, a lemur loris, or slender-limbed lemur, was examined, when it appeared that the trunk of the artery, both in the upper and lower limbs, was surrounded by only four or five smaller cylinders, instead of the numerous ones so remarkable in the slow lemur, &c.' P. 157.

The fossile skeleton, described by M. Cuvier, the celebrated comparative anatomist, found in South America, is noticed and its figure annexed, as it approaches nearer to the anatomy of the sloth than to that of any other animal. He calls it megatherium; but the animal in a living state, if it now exist, is unknown.

The myrmecophaga is the second genus of bruta, of which there are two species, not noticed by Linné, though inserted in the system of Pennant. When found in the works of the

latter naturalist, we have not distinguished the species as new, and now only mention the circumstance to point out the aculeated ant-eater, as the connecting link between the myrmecophaga and porcupine, an instance of the varied shades by which Nature proceeds in her works, and which have lately much engaged our attention. This species, however, is not adapted to the generic character of Linné; and were not the association too extensive, we should join with our author in recommending the union of this genus with the manis, and adding to the definition 'corpus pilis, squamis, vel aculeis tectum.' This objection is, however, of less consequence than the systematic accuracy, which requires that the genera should be distinguished by the teeth. On this account the manis should be united with the ant-eaters, as the scales are their only distinction. In other respects the genus manis offers no particular subject of remark. The genus dasypus (armadillo) offers also nothing to detain us, except to observe that it were desirable the specific distinctions should rest on appearances more constant than the number of bands. The concluding remarks on the genus rhinoceros we shall transcribe.

'Upon the whole, there can be little doubt that there are, in reality, three different species of rhinoceros, viz. the common or single-horned Asiatic rhinoceros, which seems to admit of occasional varieties, and may, perhaps, be sometimes furnished with a second or smaller horn; the African double-horned rhinoceros with a rough or tuberculated skin, which was the species known to the ancient Romans; and, lastly, the Sumatran double-horned rhinoceros, described and figured by Mr. Bell in the Philosophical Transactions.

'The skulls of the above animals, compared together, exclusive of other characters, afford sufficient grounds for supposing a real difference of species. It is also necessary to observe here, that the Sumatran species, being furnished with *dentes primores*, or fore teeth, seems, of course, to contradict the character of the order *bruta*, in which it is here placed. The common rhinoceros also, when young, is provided with fore teeth, which are afterwards lost; as is probably the case in the Sumatran species.

'In the twelfth edition of the Systema Naturæ the genus rhinoceros was stationed among the *belluæ*. In reality, however, where other prominent characters appear, and which are of themselves sufficient for the purpose of investigation, this scrupulous attention to the nature and situation of the teeth is the less important.

'Mons. Geoffroy, in the Magazin Encyclopédique, is inclined to believe that there either exist, or, at least, have existed, no less than five different species of rhinoceros, viz. 1. The rhinoceros Africanus cornu gemino of Camper, who has given a figure of the skull in the Petersburgh Transactions for the year 1777. 2. The species found fossil in Siberia, and which, Mons. Geoffroy contends, is different from the common two-horned rhinoceros, though of that division in the genus. 3. That of which the skull is figured by Camper, and described by him in a letter to Dr. Pallas in the above-mentioned volume

of the Petersburgh Transactions: this is a single-horned species, and was confounded, even by Camper, with the common rhinoceros. 4. The common single-horned Asiatic rhinoceros. 5. The Sumatran rhinoceros, described by Mr. Bell in the Philosophical Transactions.' P. 210.

To the description of the elephant are added all the particulars of this animal formerly published, with the interesting accounts of Mr. Corse, in a late volume of the Philosophical Transactions, particularly noticed in this journal. Dr. Shaw seems inclined to believe, with some French anatomists, that the fossile bones found in the arctic circle, and supposed to belong to the elephant, are really the remains of some other non-descript animal. It is well known that the fossile bones in South America are very unlike those of the elephant, for which they were at first mistaken. An account of the sukotyro, described by Niewhoff as a native of Java, is added with a plate, but the animal has been seen by no other traveller or naturalist. It resembles in some measure the elephant.

A new genus, the author should have said a new individual, is added, of a kind so singular, that, though repeated specimens had been sent from its native country, Australusia (New Holland), Dr. Shaw suspected some deception. It is a web-footed animal, with a bill exactly resembling that of a duck: its body is covered with fur, and, on the hind feet, the claws extend beyond the web, so as to enable the animal to burrow in the sand. The name assigned is the platypus, and it should stand next to the ant-eater in the present order. The particular description would be too long for a transcript, and we must consequently refer to the volume. The last genus, the trichecus (manati), affords no very striking subject of remark: the round-tailed manati, unknown to Linné, is described by Pennant.

Of the order feræ the first genus is the phoca; and, in enumerating the species, Dr. Shaw has followed Mr. Pennant, though he properly suspects that many of these are varieties only. The labours of an experienced observer are greatly wanted in arranging and characterising the species of this genus.

The dog-kind next occurs; and we cannot avoid remarking that many varieties have been apparently raised to the rank of species. Dr. Shaw is not inclined to allow that the wolf and the dog are the same; and, on the authority of professor Guldenstadt, looks rather to the jackal for the original of the dog than to the wolf or fox, particularly observing that the dog and jackal agree in the structure of the cæcum, differing in this respect from the wolf and the fox. The professor's remarks we shall transcribe.

'The more we consider the nature and manners of this animal, the more reason we shall find to coincide with professor Guldenstadt in

opinion, that the jackal is the real origin of the dog; (unless, indeed, we allow the wild dogs of Africa, mentioned under the history of that species, to be the dog in a state of nature). Mr. Guldenstadt very properly observes, that the natale solum of the wolf does not seem to fit it for being the supposed origin of the dog, since it is generally confined to the frigid zone: its size is also against the supposition; for the natural size of any species of animal appears to be between that of the large and small varieties. The fox is still more unlike the dog, as to some particulars in the structures of the intestines: the native country of the jackal, which is properly Asia Minor, is the land where we should naturally suppose the primæval domestic dog to have originated. The jackal, according to Mr. Guldenstadt, has a natural propensity to follow mankind, instead of flying from him, like the wolf and the fox. The whelp, he adds, is very readily tamed, and, when grown up, assumes all the habits of the domestic dog; fawns on his master, rejoices, wags its tail, throws itself on its back, and murmurs gently, distinguishes its name, jumps on the table, &c. &c. &c.

"Catulus captus facile cicuratur, et in hospitio adultus blanditur; homines læte adspiciendo, caudam motitando, corpus prosternendo, vel in dorso se projiciendo, levi murmure gannicndo. Dominum distinguit à reliquis; ad nomen proprium ipsi impositum attendit; in mensam invitatus insilit; contortuplicatus dormit; lambendo bibit; scybala dura cacat; ad latus mingit; in societate canum pacificus anum eorum odorat. Odor, quem schacala per glandulas anales spargit, nec teterrimus, ut *dumon* voluit, nec moscho analogus, ut alii voluerunt, hunc eo vulpis mitiorem et illo canis fœtore instante tempestate erumpente, vix deteriorem esse sentio."

'That the jackal and dog readily intermix or breed, appears from various testimonies, according to the count de Buffon, in his chapter on the degeneration of animals. Mr. G. cannot consider the *cauda recurvata* as an essential character of the dog, but thinks it may have originated from cicuration. The jackal, he thinks, with many other authors, may probably be the thos of Aristotle. Mr. G. saw no jackals of the exact measure given by Gmelin, but, in general, of twenty-six or twenty-seven Paris inches from the nose to the beginning of the tail. The general colour, he adds, is a dirty fulvous, rather blacker on the back, and yellowish white beneath. On each knee is generally a black patch, and the tip of the tail is of the same colour.' P. 368.

The fennec of Bruce is perhaps improperly considered by Mr. Pennant as a species of dog; but its real place, in the System of Nature, is unknown: Dr. Shaw has subjoined it with some marks of hesitation. The whole of this genus is detailed in a very able manner.

The cats, which include the lion, panther, tiger, &c. follow, and the species are well described. The distinction between the leopard and the panther is not easy, nor perhaps highly necessary. We shall add, however, some remarks on this subject from the work before us.

'In the twelfth edition of the Systema Naturæ the panther and leopard seem to be confounded by Linnæus himself, who appears to have considered them as the same species, under the name of *pardus*; while, at the same time, his specific character, as the count de Buffon observes, is such as to agree properly with no animal of the whole genus, viz. *F. caudâ elongatâ, corpore maculis superioribus orbiculatis, inferioribus virgatis.* It may be contended, perhaps, that Linnæus meant by this expression to characterise the obscurely subtransverse streaks on the breast of the animal; but it must be acknowledged that even then his descriptive character, though continued in the Gmelinian edition of the work, is by no means sufficiently expressive; and, like many others, seems to require alteration and improvement. It may, perhaps, have happened that the spots on the under part of the sides, in some specimens, may have appeared somewhat confluent, so as to produce the appearance of an indistinct kind of streaks; and something approaching to this may be observed in the figure of Buffon, which, on account of its general excellence, is represented in the present work. It is remarkable that the specific character of the panther, as given by Brisson, turns upon the same circumstance. Thus much may be observed of short specific characters in general; that, though highly useful, they are not always to be depended upon, and are only to be received with a proper degree of allowance; it must also be added, that the major part of those composed by Linnæus are remarkable for their truth and exactitude.' p. 349.

In the next genus Dr. Shaw has stepped beyond the authority of the System of Nature, by uniting the Linnean genera mustela and viverra, excluding the otters, of which he has formed a separate genus, under the name of lutra. In this he has followed Mr. Pennant; and the change is sufficiently justified by a careful examination of the species. These are, as may be supposed, numerous, and a few are new, but of no great importance. Molina's History of Chili has furnished some novelties unknown even to Mr. Pennant. The genus lutra contains many species little known, but of no great consequence; nor, from the few new species of ursus, can we select any thing that would be peculiarly interesting.

The opossum forms a singular genus, supposed at first to be peculiar to South America; and did not the abdominal pouch, in which it hides its young, so clearly distinguish the tribe, we should be almost tempted to thin its ranks, and carry some of its species to other genera. In reality some resemble the lemures, while one or more approaches near to the weesel, &c. The pouch seems by no means calculated for defence only: it contains the mammæ, and is almost a second uterus, as the young are excluded in a peculiarly helpless, defenceless state, and cherished for a time in this inclosure. Besides America, the eastern isles of India produce these peculiar animals, and Australasia has greatly increased the number of the species: yet these are hitherto by no means clearly distinguished, nor have

the synonyms been accurately ascertained. Many of the reputed species are, in our opinion, evidently varieties. Two of these have no abdominal pouch, but, in its place, a depression or furrow only: the next genus, the kangaroo, has a similar contrivance; but this tribe is sufficiently distinguished by its form and manners, and can never be confounded with the opossum.

We are indebted to the voyages of captain Cook and sir Joseph Banks for our acquaintance with the kangaroo, hitherto found only in Australasia, though the jerboia, an animal of similar conformation in its superior and inferior extremities, and somewhat similar manners, occurs in Asia. Of the present genus there are only two species hitherto known, the large and the rat kangaroo.

The account of the mole is a very interesting one; and some new American species, though known to Pennant, are added. One or two species of sorex L. are inserted under this genus, from the general resemblance, '*in spite of their teeth.*'

The genus 'sorex' is enriched with several new species from Pennant, and the volume concludes with the hedge-hog, to which no important additions are made.

It remains only to speak of the plates, which are executed with peculiar neatness and accuracy. Many are new, from original drawings preserved in the British Museum and other places; many from specimens existing in the Leverian Museum, &c. Former works are not, however, neglected; and where Buffon or preceding naturalists have given characteristic and accurate figures, they have been carefully copied.—We need scarcely add that we shall expect the succeeding volumes of this work with great eagerness and anxiety.

ART. IV.—*The New Annual Register, or General Repository of History, Politics, and Literature, for the Year* 1799. *To which is prefixed, the History of Knowledge, Learning, and Taste, in Great-Britain, during the Reign of King Charles II, Part III.* 8vo. 14*s. Boards.* Robinsons. 1800.

THE period which this volume embraces may be esteemed the richest in extraordinary events of any that has occurred since the publication of the work; and the writer of the historical department, particularly in his description of military actions, has done justice to his subject. Indeed the accumulation of documents which the justification of some and the discontent of other parties, engaged in the present calamitous conflict of opinions, have produced, would render any great failure in point of accuracy scarcely pardonable; but at the same time it is to be

considered, that to bring under one point of view a campaign whose operations are not confined as formerly to the limits of a few miles, but extend to many hundreds, and to connect together the plans and intrigues of various cabinets, so as to disclose their bearings and relations to each other, their likes and dislikes, their real and their pretended interests, requires no moderate share of talents in the execution. We must, therefore, not be contented with a niggardly degree of praise on this portion of the work; and if that relative to our parliamentary history cannot boast pretensions so aspiring, it is again compensated for by the whole of the foreign division, which is particularly worthy of the reader's attention. The principal occurrences of the year are arranged with their accustomed accuracy; of public papers there is but a meagre assortment, and they are confined to reports of the British and Irish parliaments, royal speeches and proclamations, Russian treaties, Russian declaration to the German diet, treaty of Campo Formio, and the new constitution of France. The biographical anecdotes and characters are selected with taste and judgement, and many of them are possessed of considerable interest. The account of literature is given with spirit and impartiality, and comprises an extensive range. The history of knowledge, learning, &c. in Great-Britain is confined to a few distinguished characters in the reign of Charles the Second,—Clarendon, Whitelock, Ludlow, Sidney, Shaftesbury, and Hobbes. In this part we with pleasure see that Hume is treated with the severity he deserves; for though we cannot but ascribe to him very superior talents, we coincide entirely in the present stricture, that

'whoever relies upon Hume as an historian will find himself as much misled in his politics as in his religion. He writes with that regard to truth which may be expected from an atheist, and with that accuracy which is to be looked for in an author whose only God was gain.' P. XXV.

Indeed it is singular that Hume should have so many advocates among us for his historical talents, when the same persons can hardly tolerate the names of a variety of French writers and philosophers who by no means exceed him in religious apostacy. But his partiality for the Stuart race, and his high-flown notions of prerogative, are deemed a sufficient atonement for his religious scepticism; and though the most dangerous writer probably we have on this subject, his sneers are endured for the sake of his political creed.

The history for the year commences with a review of the state of politics at the end of the year 1798, and with a summary of the debates in the two houses, the chief of which occurred on the suspension of the Habeas-corpus act, and the de-

grading treatment which colonel Despard experienced under that suspension in the prison now unhappily so well known for its discipline and extreme rigour over the whole island. Some assertions made in favour of that prison must now astonish every one since the late inquiry under the royal commission; and it must be lamented that the question was, in the first instance, considered as a question of mere party, instead of one in which all parties should have concurred, both for the sake of their individual safety, the rights of humanity, and the honour of the British character.

The second chapter contains the debates on the union, which are given at large: the third is devoted to the subject of finances, of which the tax on income made so memorable a part, and in whose produce the minister seems to have been so remarkably mistaken. The fourth chapter proceeds with debates on the redemption of the land-tax, militia arrangement, slave-trade, &c.; and in this, as in the chapter on the union, the debates are fully and impartially detailed.

The foreign history commences with an account of Switzerland; and the easy subjection of that country to the French is shown to arise from causes which have studiously been concealed by the generality of writers. The severity of the canton of Berne, or rather of the oligarchy in that canton, was by no means the only evil under which the Swiss had reason to complain.

'Although the hand of those Swiss governments weighed heavy on the political offenders who examined with too scrutinising an eye into the doctrine of popular rights, or who ventured upon the commission of overt acts, such as murmuring against certain privileges of the sovereign, by which these complainants thought themselves personally aggrieved, in the disposal and profits arising from their industry; yet, where passive and unremitting obedience sat easy on the mind of the subject, no masters were more kind and gentle. The persevering and laborious activity of the peasant had tamed the soil where it was stubborn, and brought to its highest perfection that which was susceptible of culture; and this industry, guided by œconomy, had spread not only ease and comfort, but even wealth and abundance, over the land. On this peaceable class of subjects the eye of the Swiss magistrate had shone with peculiar complacency, and in some cantons, particularly that of Berne, had given room for a sort of social compact against the inquisitive and encroaching spirit of the inhabitants of towns, such as artisans and manufacturers, whose knowledge or means of information, contrasted with the ignorance of the peasant, gave umbrage to his ally the burgher. It was the policy of the latter to maintain the spirit of rivalry between these subject classes; and so successfully was this system followed in the principal cantons, that the ignorant but favourite peasant was taught to refuse all alliance with the more cultivated inhabitant of towns; and the merchant, who added

to the wealth of the husbandman by the purchase and exchange of his produce, was regarded also as an object of inferiority and contempt.

'But, if this reciprocity of affection existed in some cantons between the peasant and burgher, in others, where interest was the ruling passion of the governors, their power and avarice weighed more heavy on the industry and personal freedom of the peasant. The governments of the cantons were, for the most part, very dissimilar; but all writers agree in the existence of vexatious and oppressive abuses in all. The despotism of their institutions; the abuses of elections to sovereign councils; the daily and encroaching spirit of authority; the overgrown influence of patrician families; the striking inequality which prevailed, even on this basis, of aristocratical power; the monopoly of places of profit to the exclusion of worth and talent; the undefined limits of pro-consular administration; the want of encouragement to the arts and sciences; the neglect of education amongst those who were destined to rule, the void of which was filled up by idleness, arrogance, ignorance, and dissipation—are so many features, presented by writers of different characters and discordant sentiments, to fill up the picture of this vaunted region of happiness and liberty.' P. 178.

The miseries brought on this unhappy country by its pretended deliverers are amply related; and the changes that took place in its constitution are well described.

The invasion of Egypt and the glorious battle of Aboukir dignify the next chapter, which is followed by one containing the revolution in Holland, the disgraceful expedition to Ostend, the Cisalpine constitutions, the capture of Rome, and the continuation of the congress at Rastadt. The flight of the king of Naples from his capital, the escape of general Mack from his friends to his enemies, the conduct of the Lazzaroni, and the symptoms of the approaching and deserved fall of the directory, form the principal topics of the eighth chapter. The ninth brings us into the bustle of action: the passage of the French across the Rhine, the defeat of Jourdan's army, the arrival of Suwarrow in Italy, the assassination of the French plenipotentiaries near Rastadt, and the seemingly irrevocable annihilation of French affairs from the corruption and mismanagement of their directory. In this part the relation of the prodigies performed by the armies of both parties on the summit of the Alps justly command our attention; and the remarks on this new mode of encounter are drawn up with singular judgement and propriety.

'It appears astonishing that so many obstacles, which heretofore were esteemed insurmountable to the march of an army, should have been so rapidly subdued; and that the obstinate resistance and active defence of a military force, which would formerly have been judged superabundant to block every passage, should have stopped for no longer time the progress of an army acting on the offensive. There was no greater ardour in attack, no less vigour or obstinacy in defence, no new arms employed, no other methods of fighting adopted, than

such as had been hitherto practised. The art of war had, probably, attained already its highest perfection in those respects. Frederic II. had left few discoveries to make, few branches to perfect in modern tactics. But in proportion as general combinations were extended, the strongest posts and places, reputed impregnable in mountainous countries, have shared the same fate as those situated in plains. If posts like these do not guarantee the possession of such heights as are loftiest and steepest; if they do not block up the slightest interstices in the chain, the first passes opened by the waters, which gather by degrees, and level as they flow, and which afford an entrance into fertile and extensive valleys; posts like these, in such cases, have only a relative and momentary importance. Since travellers have found roads across abysses of ice and snow, and explored those new regions, the art of war, to which every science is tributary, and which increases with the progressive improvement of the human faculties, has led military men to run new chances, to make new experiments; and military talent and enterprise have certainly excited men to as great efforts as the pursuits of natural science or curiosity. When, therefore, the icy summits of the Alps have been climed, and bodies of troops and artillery have been transported along roads with difficulty trodden by the most intrepid hunters, great plans of attack and defence were soon combined, as peaks and lesser summits, with chains of mountains and great masses; the secrets of Nature have been surprised, her immutable order acknowledged, even in her wildest caprices; the chaos of the stupendous Alps has been unfolded; typographical charts have been perfected; the slightest details examined; and models in relief formed with an art and exactness hitherto unknown. This precise knowledge of the great skeleton, of the osteology, as it were, of the mountains, has furnished generals and officers of the staff with great though simple ideas. The most practicable communications have been examined with singular attention; a new topographical scale, in short, has been formed for the operations of war in mountains, and detachments have been sent in consequence to the greatest distances, to secure dominating points which gave the command of immense intervals.

'These advantages were so well appreciated on both sides in the war of Switzerland, that a blow struck on the frontiers of the Tyrol and the Grisons, at thirty or forty leagues distance, was felt at the centre of the armies, which were obliged to make movements, and change plans, as if those divisions, separated by so many difficulties and so many natural intrenchments, had been contiguous to the main army from which they had been detached. No obstacle being able to stop a general movement, at least for a sufficient time, to turn the party superior in force from the simple plan of operations, which might be called the natural and topographical plan, and which consists in attacking the wings of an enemy, turning its flanks without any regard to the party's own position, the result is, that in a mountain war the strength of posts and positions does not counterbalance superiority of numbers as much as it did heretofore.

'It is probable that the new system of the war of posts, in general engagements along the whole line of contending armies, has been carried to its highest perfection in the war of Switzerland; and it is useful as well as interesting to observe, under this point of view, the details

of success and defeat, and note what faults have been committed, and what acts of address and bravery are worthy of admiration. These observations may be applied to the details of this short but singularly interesting campaign, particularly in the rapid invasion of the country of the Grisons; in the operations of general Lecourbe, and those of the generals Laudohn and Bellegarde; in short, in the first retreat of Massena, forced to concentrate his forces under Zurich, to call back his right from beyond St. Gothard and the little cantons, and yield to the archduke in less than fifteen days almost the whole course of the Rhine, and half of the territory of Switzerland.' P. 304.

The violation of all the accustomed relations of civilised life in the assassination of the French plenipotentiaries is a singular though horrid trait in this extraordinary and bloody war.

'If the simple narration of the circumstances of this extraordinary event be sufficient to awaken feelings of indignation and horror against the authors and instruments of acts of barbarity so atrocious and almost unexampled, it may be well imagined what were the impressions and sentiments of the remainder of the deputation at the sight of those relicts sprinkled with the blood of their assassinated husbands and fathers, and when the mutilated surviving minister displayed in his wounds so strange a version of the imperial code of the rights of nations. The Prussian legation wrote immediately a letter to Barbaczy, expressed in terms which marked all their horror at this atrocious violation, to demand an escort and a safeguard more sure for what remained of the French legation. The commander, in answer to those indignant representations, expressed himself sorry at what had passed, and promised to punish the authors. It had been represented, however, as "improbable that this unexampled crime could have been committed without his knowledge; and that hussars of his regiment should have ventured to murder and plunder persons of that distinction, respected by all civilised nations, without an express order. Such ruffians (it was urged), at least had they acted under no command, would have been less discriminate and scrupulous in their deeds; the ministers would not have been the only persons sacrificed, nor would their attention have been particularly fixed on the box containing the papers of the legation. But what seemed to leave little doubt respecting the immediate authors of the crime, was the conveyance of all the objects which were pillaged to the Austrian commander of the post of Radstadt, who would not have received them had not the murder been committed in consequence of superior orders." Part of those effects were given back by the commander of the post, at his house, to Roberjot's domestic, who went to claim them. The domestic obtained, among other things, a sack of an hundred louis, and gold snuff-boxes, and saw the remainder of the effects which had been pillaged lying in the room. The papers of the legation were likewise claimed; but these the commandant refused, alleging that he was obliged to send them to the head-quarters.' P. 310.

'Various were the conjectures respecting the motives which could

have urged the commission of so horrible an act. The violation of the persons of embassadors by the Austrian government had already taken place during the present war in the person of Semonville, who was arrested on neutral territory in his route to Constantinople; but though this act was contrary to the law of nations, the present was still a more detestable infraction of the laws of human nature. Some have stated "this murder to have been the pledge given by the Austrian government to the coalesced powers for its adherence to the treaty; since the crime was of so enormous a magnitude as to make reconciliation between the court of Vienna and the French republic impossible: but what dependence on a power whose obligation to fidelity is estimated by the magnitude of its guilt? Others have supposed that certain treaties had been concluded during the negotiation between the court and the French directory, which the former having found it its interest to violate, was unwilling to have had discovered; hence the murder of the contracting parties, and the seizure and detention of their papers:" yet had this been the case, it is probable that the secret would have been communicated to the directory at the time of the pretended negotiation; or would not some account of such transactions have pierced, when every tye of secrecy was loosened? Mystery still hangs around this dark transaction, and we must yet wait for the unravelling. The diet of Ratisbon, who undertook to penetrate it, after a long examination, referred it to the emperor: the French government had not this candour or forbearance; for, whoever were the assassins, or by whatever orders this nefarious act was committed, the court of Vienna was peremptorily charged with the murder by the directory, who sent a message to the councils to give them official notice of the event. The councils adopted a resolution, the principal articles of which were, "that this act should be denounced in the name of the French nation to all good men, and to the governments of every country, as commanded by the cabinet of Vienna, and executed by its troops on the ninth Floreal, seventh year, with its reliance on the courage of the French to avenge it; that a funeral *fête* should be celebrated in honour of the murdered deputies throughout the republic; that the government guilty of this assassination should be consigned to the vengeance of nations, and the execrations of posterity; that in the place of sitting of every municipal administration, in tribunals, schools, and public establishments, an inscription should be put up, stating that the Austrian government had caused this assassination to be committed by its troops; that a banner should be sent to every army by sea or land, with an inscription provocative of vengeance against the Austrians for this murder, which banners were to be carried at the head of each army, and that indemnities should be given to the widows and children of the deceased ministers."

'Thus tragically ended that long and memorable diplomatic campaign, in which the French had been outwitted and worsted by the superior talents of the Austrian cabinet, who, having to negotiate with ignorant and presumptuous practitioners of the law, having to contend only with adversaries it despised, felt no restraint but its will, and condescended to consult no means but its force.' P. 311.

The rapid conquests of Suwarrow, the march of Macdonald from Naples, the battle of Trebbia, the voyage of the combined fleets in the Mediterranean, might, if our limits permitted, afford matter for various extracts; and the civil state of France, described in the eleventh chapter, is no less interesting; but from this also we forbear, as it brings us to the eve of more important events. The Austrians and Russians are now approaching that republic whose constitution they are to overthrow, and in its stead to erect a government more conformable to their views of the duties of subjects to sovereigns. The French are obliged to quit Naples, and their abettors are massacred.

'The Lazzaroni became once more the instruments of royal vengeance. A special commission was appointed, which pronounced sentence of death, without much formality, on such as had taken an active part in the late government: little other formality, indeed, was necessary, than the identification of their persons, since the crime stated in the royal edict was but too apparent. Almost the whole of the members of the executive and legislative commissions perished by the hand of the executioner. Exaggeration of evil is natural to the wretched. Those who had the good fortune to escape the massacre speak of horrors unexampled in those times, which scarcely find a name among a civilised people, and with which the cruelties exercised under the reign of terror in France bear no kind of competition. The court of Naples, scandalised at the reports which had circulated through foreign countries, published officially what it deemed a refutation of those calumnies; asserting, that the persons accused of having exerted themselves in favour of French liberty had been tried by competent tribunals and by upright magistrates; that all those who were accused had not been put to death; and that this punishment had been reserved only for the most atrocious criminals; in justification of which a list was published of part of the proceedings of this supreme tribunal. Among other names in this official scroll were inscribed those of Julian Colonna, prince of Stigliano, and the duke of Cassano, who were beheaded; Eleonora Fonseca, the marchioness of Piemontello, and eighteen other women of rank, with the bishop of Vico, who were hanged; the duke of Carraciolo, major-general Spano, and others, colonels, majors, and ecclesiastics, sent to work in the galleys; the duchesses of Cassano and Popoli, shut up for life in the Penitentiary Hospital. This supreme tribunal had been erected to prevent the repetition of the horrors which had taken place in the first weeks of vengeance. In the official account, after declaring the names of the criminals who had been punished, it is observed, that in this list were not comprehended a greater number of different ranks and qualities who perished in the first moments of the re-establishment of order, and before the formation of the supreme tribunal. The people, it was added, knew how to distinguish the enemies of their king, and execute due justice towards them.' P. 365.

The brilliant victory of Massena in Switzerland restored the affairs of France. The description of this battle is given with

admirable clearness; the writer enters with great spirit into each movement; he feels on the tops of the mountains his animation revived.

'Numerous reflections on the extraordinary exertions made in this mountainous war readily present themselves; it seems that, in high mountains, the military *coup d'œil* forms, extends, and proportions itself insensibly to a greater scale of objects and distances; combinations are enlarged, and multiply in the ratio of the masses of mountains and the variety of their situations. In level countries the plans of generals are almost always subordinate to the rules of the art; marches are counted, manœuvres elucidated, resistance, time, and resources appreciated, measured, weighed,—the whole is an affair of calculation, and the data of the problem being almost always known, it is resolved before the fate of arms has decided it: but in a mountainous country the genius of the general is less shackled, and though he meet with more obstacles, he bounds over the common rules, makes new combinations, invents artificial aids, and creates for himself an untried system of war.' P. 377.

We could have wished for a fuller detail of that fine movement by which Melas gained the battle of Novi, and gave Suwarrow the hopes of joining a victorious army in Switzerland. But before we contemplate the farther progress of the latter, we are carried back to the domestic affairs of France, and the invasion of Holland by the English and Russians. This last transaction every Englishman would wish to bury in oblivion. We hasten, therefore, to other events; the fate of Pius the Sixth, the march of Buonaparte to Acre, his departure from Egypt and arrival in France, by which the destiny of the republic seems at last to have been fixed. On all these events appropriate reflexions are made, and we are brought again, in the fifteenth chapter, into the midst of war—Suwarrow pursuing his victorious career, and the French retiring to the fastnesses of the mountains. The invasion of France seemed now absolutely certain, when on a sudden fortune returned again to the republic; and her favourite son, by one of those great actions which have so distinguished the present art of war, completely broke the power of the northern barbarians, and sent Suwarrow himself into the valleys of Switzerland just time enough to learn the extent of his loss, and to retire like a wounded bear over Alps piled on Alps and mountains of ice. The puny transactions in North Holland vanish in comparison with these prodigies of war: a march of about thirty miles bounded the travels of the British and Russian arms; and the English nation saw, with astonishment, that the planners of this expedition were obliged to experience, and not to their foresight, for their knowledge of the Dutch nation.

'Though the invasion of Holland was the cause, no doubt, of very great immediate calamity, especially in that part of the country which was the theatre of the war, it was, nevertheless, productive of ad-

vantage to the Batavian government. The proclamations of the English indisposed greatly against them even the Orangists, who were struck at seeing no engagement on the part of the British government to give up the Dutch colonies, and also the stadtholder held out as the legitimate sovereign. The Dutch, in general, were indignant at being considered the subjects of an officer of the republic, whose office they several times had found it convenient to suppress. From that moment, and more immediately on the capitulation, the party of the stadtholder was no longer dangerous, and the country considered itself as for ever released from the influence of the British cabinet. Another effect of this invasion, still more striking, was the opportunity given for the display of the energy of the Dutch, by arming themselves for their own defence, the most effectual means of securing their own liberty and independence, from the influence of any court or cabinet.' P. 450.

The return of Buonaparte to France destroyed the factions by which that unhappy country had been torn to pieces almost from the moment of his departure. His superior genius placed him at the head of the republic; and his first cares were occupied in settling the internal peace of the country, and forming such a practicable constitution as might secure to more favourable times the liberty which had been so dearly purchased. The French were still pressed in Italy, but they still retained the Genoese territory, and Buonaparte was preparing for a more splendid campaign than any that had hitherto been seen, to reconquer his former conquests, and to show himself as great in the cabinet as he has uniformly been in the field. The work concludes with a wish with which in due time the hearts of warriors and the rulers of this world will be inspired: 'May the little advantage which either party has gained by this disastrous contest lead them to see their true interests, and may they speedily restore to a distracted world the blessings of peace!'

ART. V.—*The critical and miscellaneous Prose Works of John Dryden, now first collected with Notes and Illustrations, and an Account of the Life and Writings of the Author, grounded on original and authentic Documents; and a Collection of his Letters, the greater Part of which has never before been published. By Edmond Malone, Esq.* 8*vo.* 3 *Vols.* 2*l.* 2*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

IN this re-publication of the prose works of Dryden, the editor uniformly talks as if there had been no prior collection of the kind, whereas his design was in some measure forestalled by a similar publication in Scotland half a century ago*. The style of this great writer had indeed long before impressed our

* Select Essays on the Belles-Lettres. By Mr. Dryden. Glasgow. Printed by Robert Urie. 1750.

northern neighbours with a deep sense of its merit, as appears from a high encomium on his prose, to be found in the works of Dr. Armstrong, vol. ii. p. 162, who observes, that, 'from the fineness of his ear, his prose too is perhaps the sweetest, the most mellow and generous, that the English language has yet produced."

To attempt to criticise the prose of Dryden would be similar to a new critique on the blank verse of Milton. Its beauties are so universally felt and confessed, that we can only join in the general applause. While we acknowledge Mr. Malone's merit in this collection, and his industry in discovering several inedited letters of this great author, we must arraign his taste in preserving every fawning dedication which necessity wrested from his pen. No author would wish every careless or temporary production to be solemnly handed down to posterity; and we even believe that Dryden would have preferred the Scotish selection to these bulky volumes. The letters themselves are in truth of little moment; and, after these general remarks, we shall confine our strictures to Mr. Malone's life of Dryden, which, with the appendix, forms a volume of 570 pages large octavo. It is, in reality, a ponderous and tasteless mass, composed of sand and stone, and marble, and rubbish, with very little mortar to hold it together. The digressions are often so long and so strange as to defy all analysis; and if we can foresee any plan which we can follow in examining such a desultory performance, it will be to mingle some remarks on errors, faults, and omissions, with some account of the new facts and authorities for the life of Dryden.

In enumerating (p. vii.) the testimonies in favour of Dryden's prose, the editor has forgotten that of Dr. Armstrong above quoted. The introduction of Dr. Johnson's criticism on Dryden's works, which occupies eleven pages of the advertisement, is singularly impertinent; for a mere reference to a book so universally read as his 'Lives of the Poets,' would have been fully sufficient. In the present high price of paper, it would be well if an act of parliament could be obtained to prevent such extravagant waste.

John Dryden, the eldest son of Erasmus Dryden, and Mary, daughter of the Rev. Henry Pickering, is generally supposed to have been born on the 9th of August, 1631; nor do we find Mr. Malone's doubts sufficient to remove his birth to a prior year. In the minuteness of antiquarian nonsense our editor may vie with Thomas Hearne; and the reader of taste is disgusted with the new orthography of the family name *Driden*, as if it were of any consequence in what manner the grandmother of John Dryden spelled her name.

Dryden's family was originally from Cumberland, whence, about the middle of the sixteenth century, John Dryden, of

Staffhill, emigrated into Northamptonshire, and acquired the estate of Canons-Ashby, by his marriage of the daughter of sir John Cope. The family never had any connexion with the county of Huntingdon till our author's uncle, sir John Dryden, the second baronet of the family, married the heiress of Chesterton.

Erasmus Dryden, our author's father, was the third son of sir Erasmus Dryden of Canons-Ashby. John Dryden, the poet, received his first rudiments at Tichmarsh, whence he removed to Westminster school, and was educated as a king's scholar under Dr. Busby. On the 11th of May 1650 he was admitted to a scholarship at Trinity college, Cambridge. In 1649 he wrote some verses, which have been preserved; in 1652 he was slightly punished for disobedience and contumacy; in January 1654 he took his bachelor's degree, and 1657 that of master of arts. So Mr. Malone asserts, p. 17; but from p. 554 it appears that he became master of arts on the 17th June, 1668, by virtue of a dispensation from the archbishop of Canterbury, in consequence of a letter from Charles II.

By the death of his father, 1654, Dryden inherited a small estate in Northamptonshire. After residing seven years at Cambridge, he removed to London in 1657. We shall not follow our biographer through a labyrinth of dull digressions, in which we must confess that we are sometimes puzzled to find any meaning. Suffice it to say that Dryden's kinsman, sir Gilbert Pickering, being a favourite of Oliver and of Richard Cromwell, our author wrote his poem in praise of that usurper in 1659, and in 1660 his poem on the happy restoration of Charles II. The times were such, that political deviations became almost unavoidable, and this inconsistency was trifling when compared with his abjuration of the Protestant creed in the reign of James II. which we believe he afterwards deeply regretted; while, shame alone preventing his return to the Protestant faith, he, as is usual with renegadoes, covered it with the mantle of warm and increased attachment to his new profession. The abjuration of any principle from mere interest has never failed justly to incur the lasting contempt of mankind; and hence the convert is anxious that a new and superior principle alone should appear to influence his election.

It being the fashion of that age to use poverty as a reproach (perhaps one of the most unaccountable absurdities of human nature), Dryden's enemies accused him of this great crime. But the small estate bequeathed by his father must have saved him from want, and he was soon transferred to ease and plenty at the house of sir Robert Howard, to whose poems he prefixed some recommendatory verses in 1660. This acquaintance seems to have led to the marriage between Dryden and sir Robert

Howard's sister Elizabeth, a daughter of Thomas first earl of Berkshire.

In 1661 Dryden produced his first play, The Duke of Guise, which was followed the next year by The Wild Gallant. With regard to the epochs of his dramas, Mr. Malone has pointed out many mistakes of Dr. Johnson.

In 1667 Dryden published his elegant essay on dramatic poetry, and our editor has wasted much ink and paper in an idle attempt to explain who were the speakers in the dialogue. In this solemn business it is truly risible to find him alter the spelling of sir Charles Sedley's name to accommodate it to his idea, that he is the Lisideius of the colloquy*. No speculation can be at once more wild and barren than an attempt to account for the names assigned to characters in dramas; and, as Dryden was a dramatic author, it is probable that he coined his names at random. But as sir Charles Sedley must be Lisideius, so Mr. Malone must spell his name Sidley to the end of the chapter. We shall only say, that his Driden and his Sidley are sufficient to betray the dimunitive mind of the trifle-hunter.

On the well-known history of Dryden's dramas in rhyme we shall not dwell. His agreement with the theatre produced between three and four hundred pounds a year; and Mr. M. evinces, from the original papers, that the number of plays which he engaged to furnish annually was three: but this engagement he did not fulfil,—and in seven years he produced only ten dramas.

Dryden's appointment to the ridiculous post of poet-laureat is introduced by an account of the origin and progress of that office. But in verity Mr. Malone displayeth little learning when he calleth the poet-laureat to Henry VII. by the name of Andrew Barnard. If he could have understood the Latin at the bottom of his own page, or had looked into the life of Henry VII. by this said poet-laureat, he would have discovered that his name was Bernard André, of Toulouse. Dryden succeeded D'Avenant in the laurel, but his patent was not signed till August 1670. James Howell, the royal historiographer, having died in 1666, this office was conjoined with the former, and Dryden's pension fixed at 200*l.* per year.

After some erratic pages our editor returns to Dryden's dramas, and to the ridicule on them conveyed in The Rehearsal, first acted on the 7th of December 1671; but additions were afterwards made, containing allusions to dramas acted or published after that time. In mentioning Dryden's State of Innocence, Mr. Malone wanders into much devious matter; nor shall we

* The name should probably be Lysideius, and will, from the Greek, signify a dissolver of difficulties.

pursue him through his dry dates and scraps of old pamphlets. In 1679 some satirical verses of Dryden against the profligate Rochester were rewarded with a drubbing by some ruffians, as he was returning from Will's Coffee-house through Rose-street, Covent-garden, to his own house in Gerrard-street, Soho.

In 1681 Dryden exchanged the drama for politics, and produced his satire of Absalom and Achitophel, designed to support the cause of the king against that of Shaftesbury, Monmouth, and their adherents. In discussing this subject, p. 139, Mr. Malone falls into an error not a little disgraceful to him who is solely occupied in such trifles, by confounding sir George Mackenzie of Rosehaugh, the king's advocate for Scotland, with sir George Mackenzie of Tarbat, one of the lords of session, and afterwards earl of Cromarty. The former, who was never a lord of session, was the friend of Dryden.

After being again lost in a whirlpool of irrelevant matter, we find a confutation of an anecdote concerning Shaftesbury and a son of Dryden who was admitted as scholar at the Charterhouse on the king's recommendation.

In 1682 Dryden published his Medal, or a satire against sedition, on account of a medal which was struck on Shaftesbury's acquittal in November the preceding year. Dryden's political poems are now little read, nor can an ingenuous mind relish their venal satire and praise.

In October 1682 Dryden published his Mac Flecknoe, a satire against the whig poet Shadwell, who had given him great offence. We know that *whig* in that century implied buttermilk, the common drink of the Scotish peasantry, as Tory signified an Irish bog-trotter; but what is the origin of the title Mac Flecknoe? Richard Flecknoe, a dramatic writer of this reign, is said to have been a jesuit, who could hardly be regarded as the poetical father of a Whig; nor does Mr. Malone succeed in accounting for this quaint and eccentric title.

From a digressive note, p. 182, we learn, that the portrait prefixed to recent editions of The Fleece, and other poems of John Dyer, is that of Samuel Dyer, a friend of Dr. Johnson, whose character is well vindicated by Mr. Malone, who asserts that he was the author of the Letters of Junius.

In 1684 Dryden began to publish his Miscellanies, and in the following year he gave a translation of Maimbourg's History of the League, by the king's express command, who probably thought that the French league resembled the solemn league and covenant.

The Hind and the Panther, the longest original poem of our author, was published in 1687. In this he displayed his new faith, by a severe attack upon the Protestant religion; but the speakers and the design are alike absurd. It was well answered in The Hind and the Panther transversed to the Story of the

Country Mouse and the City Mouse, which may safely be ascribed to Prior alone, as the share of Montague, afterwards earl of Halifax, is very dubious. In 1688 a new and elegant edition of Milton's Paradise Lost, in folio, projected in the preceding year, and completed before the Revolution, was published with a numerous subscription, and Dryden's noted verses under the portrait. In August 1689 Dryden lost his offices of poet-laureat and historiographer, which were conferred on Shadwell. To supply this loss of income, Dryden returned to the stage, and in 1690 produced his Don Sebastian. In 1692 appeared the translation of Juvenal and Persius.

Mr. Malone now wanders into an account of Congreve, who was educated at the school of Kilkenny in Ireland, but was born at Bardsey, about eight miles from Leeds, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, where he was baptised on the 10th of February 1670; so that when The Old Bachelor was produced he was twenty-three years of age.

About the year 1694 Dryden began his celebrated translation of Virgil, which was finished and published in three years. We again enter the labyrinth of digression, but learn from p. 251 that he borrowed two months from his version of Virgil to translate Dufresnoy's poem on the art of painting, published, with an account of the painters, by one Graham, of whom we expected some account.

The celebrated Ode of Alexander's Feast was published in December 1697. The account of St. Cecilia, the patroness of music and of her festivities, we shall not follow. The music to Dryden's ode was written by Jeremiah Clarke, an able composer, who perished by his own hands in July, 1707. Mr. Malone seems to prove that this ode occupied Dryden for some weeks, so that the trivial anecdote of its being finished in one night falls to the ground.

In 1699 Dryden entered into a contract with Tonson to supply him with ten thousand verses (his fables) for three hundred pounds, out of which two hundred and fifty guineas were to be paid down, and the remainder on publishing a second edition. This exquisite work was accordingly published in March 1700, but a second edition did not appear till thirteen years after the death of the author. The account of the latter event we shall transcribe, with the notes, as a specimen of Mr. Malone's manner.

'The end of all his labours was now approaching. He had for some years been harassed by the gravel and the gout; and in December, 1699, was afflicted with an erysipelas in one of his legs.* Having recovered, however, from that disorder, he was sufficiently free from any complaint to apply again to his studies, as is evinced by the

* See his letter to Mrs. Thomas; dated Dec. 29, 1699.

poetical performances which have been just mentioned; but he was confined to his house by the gout during the greater part of March and April; and near the end of that month, in consequence of neglecting an inflammation in one of his feet, a mortification ensued, of which he died, after a very short illness*, at three o'clock on Wednesday morning, May the 1st, 1700†.

'His leg having become mortified, his surgeon recommended an amputation of the limb, with a view to stop the further progress of the disorder; but he would not undergo the operation, saying, that as by the course of nature he had not many years to live, he would not attempt to prolong an uncomfortable existence by a painful and uncertain experiment, but patiently submit to death‡. This account,

---

'* That his illness was short, and his death sudden and unexpected, appears from the following introductory paragraph to an account of his funeral, written by Edward Ward, in The London Spy, soon afterwards:

"A deeper concern hath scarce been known to affect in general the minds of grateful and ingenious men, than the melancholy *surprise* of the worthy Mr. Dryden's death hath occasioned through the whole town, as well as in all other parts of the kingdom, where any persons either of wit or learning have taken up their residence."

'His illness was not noticed in any of the newspapers, that I have seen, till the 30th of April, when The Postboy announced, that "John Dryden, esq., the famous poet, lies a dying."

'† In The Postboy, from Tuesday, April 30, to Thursday, May 2, 1700, his death was thus announced:

"Yesterday morning at three of the clock, John Dryden, esq., departed this life, who for his poetry, &c. excelled all others this age produced."

'Dr. Birch, in the General Dictionary, following an erroneous inscription inserted by Pope in his works, 1735, stated, that Dryden died in 1701; and in the Biographia Britannica, and the subsequent collections of English biography, this error has been adopted.

"‡ The occasion of his sickness (says Ward, *ubi supra*,) was a lameness in one of his feet, springing from so trivial a cause as the flesh growing over one of his toe-nails, which, being neglected, begot a soreness, and brought an inflammation in his toe; and being a man of a gross body, a flux of humours falling into the part, made it very troublesome,—that he was forced to put himself into the hands of an able surgeon, who foreseeing the danger of a mortification, advised him to part with the toe affected, as the best means to prevent the ill consequence likely to ensue; which he refused to consent to, believing a cure might be effected by less severe means than the loss of a member; till at last his whole leg gangrened, which was presently followed by a mortification, so that nothing remained to prevent death, but an amputation of the member thus putrified, which he refused to consent to, saying," &c. His surgeon, we know, was Mr. Hobbes, a very famous operator, whose skill and care he has acknowledged in the postscript to his Virgil.

'On this account, which was printed in 1703, if not before, Mrs. Elizabeth Thomas, whose talents for invention were not inconsiderable, above twenty years afterwards, formed the following story; into which, for the better grace, and to give her narrative the genuine air of authenticity, she has introduced several *small* circumstances:

"On the 19th of April, 1700, he said he had been very bad with the gout, and an erysipelas in one leg, but he was then very well, and designed to go soon abroad: but on the *Friday* following, [April 26th,] he had eat *a partridge* for supper; and going to take a turn in the little garden behind his house, [we must suppose, by *moonlight*, for on the 28th of April it was certainly dark after supper,] was seized with a violent pain under the *ball* of the *great* toe of his *right* foot; that, unable to stand, he cried out for help, and was carried in by his *servants*; when, upon send-

which was given by a contemporary writer, not long afterwards, is strongly corroborated by the unquestionable testimony of Mrs. Elizabeth Creed*, his kinswoman; who informs us, that he received the

---

ing for *surgeons*, *they* found a small black spot in the place affected. He submitted to their present applications; and when gone, called his son, Charles, to him, using *these words*: 'I know,' says he, 'this black spot is a mortification; I know 'also that it will seize *my head*, and that they will cut off my leg; but I com-'mand you, my son, by your filial duty, that you do not suffer me to be dismem-'bered.' As he too truly foretold, the event proved, and his son was too dutiful to disobey his father's commands." Letter to the author of the Memoirs of Congreve, 8vo. 1730.—The reader will very soon be furnished with such decisive proofs of this lady's inventive faculties and disregard for truth, as will leave no doubt that this story is a mere fiction. She has, it is observable, furnished our author with a train of servants, though, in his correspondence with Tonson, he mentions only his *footboy*; and she has been equally lavish of chirurgical assistance. As for the words, which, she tells us, he spoke on this occasion, if she had been sitting by his bed-side, she could not have been more precise.

'Ward's account is in part confirmed by the following lines in an elegy on Dryden, written by Gildon soon after his death:

"His body old, his wit continued young;
Weak were his limbs, his lines robust and strong;
In winter, as in spring, this warbling swan still sung.
If health be harmony, the wonder's great,
How discord-sickness should admittance get,
Where harmony itself had placed her regal seat.
Disease in vain had oft the fortress storm'd;
With harmony divine as oft it found it arm'd.
Repulse upon repulse enraged to find,
Now on new arts she bent her deadly mind:
She watch'd each chance, to level with the ground
A fort so long impregnable she'd found:
Malicious chance a fatal breach had made,
Too small, indeed, without dire gangrene's aid,
For death to enter with its stern brigade."

In a note the writer remarks, that Dryden died of a *gangrene*. Examen Miscellaneum, 8vo. 1702.

* 'Mrs. Elizabeth Creed, who was second-cousin to our author's children, was the only daughter of sir Gilbert Pickering, baronet, (of whom an ample account has been given in a former page,) by Elizabeth, the only daughter of sir Sidney Montagu, knight, and sister of Edward Montagu, first earl of Sandwich. She was born in the year 1642, and was married to John Creed of Oundle, esq., "a wise learned, and pious man," (as she has herself informed us, in an inscription in the church of Tichmarsh,) "who served his majesty king Charles the Second in diverse honourable employments at home and abroad; lived with honour, and died lamented, A.D. 1701." By this gentleman she had eleven children, six of whom died in their infancy. Of the survivors, Richard, the eldest, who was a major in the army, highly distinguished himself at the battle of Blenheim, where he commanded one of the squadrons that began the attack. In two several charges he was unhurt, but in the third he received many wounds; notwithstanding which he continued to fight, till he was shot through the head by a cannon ball. His dead body was brought off the field by his brother John, at the hazard of his own life; and a monument was afterwards erected in Westminster abbey in memory of the gallant services of major Richard Creed, on which the inscription (written probably by his mother) informs us, that "he attended king William in all his wars, and was never more himself than when he looked an enemy in the face." His mother erected another monument to him in the church of Tichmarch.

'This very amiable and respectable lady, as I have been informed by her great grandson, William Walcot, jun. esq., "during her widowhood, resided many years in a mansion-house at Barnwell, near Oundle, in Northamptonshire, belonging to the Montagu family, where she amused and employed herself in painting, and in-

notice of his approaching dissolution with perfect resignation and submission to the Divine Will; and that in his last illness he took the most tender and affectionate farewel of his afflicted friends, "of which sorrowful number she herself was one*." Twenty-two years afterwards this very respectable lady, who was then in her eightieth year, erected a monument at Tichmarch, in honour of our poet and his parents, on which these circumstances so much to his honour are recorded.' P. 335.

---

structing many young women in drawing, fine needle-works, and other elegant arts. Many of the churches in the neighbourhood of Oundle are decorated with altar-pieces, monuments, and ornaments of different kinds, the works of her hand; and her descendants are possessed of many portraits, and some good pictures, painted by her. Two days in every week she constantly allotted to the public; on one, she was visited by all the nobility and gentry who resided near her; on the other, she received and relieved all the afflicted and diseased of every rank, giving them food, raiment, or medicine, according to their wants. Her reputation in the administration of medicine was considerable; and as she afforded it *gratis*, her practice was of course extensive. Her piety was great and unaffected. That it was truly sincere, was evinced by the magnanimity with which she endured many trials more heavily afflictive than what usually fall to the lot even of those whose life is prolonged to so great an extent."

'In 1722 Mrs. Creed, then in her eightieth year, erected a monument in the church of Tichmarch, to the memory of our author and his ancestors; for which she wrote the inscription, (containing the passage in the text,) which will be found at length in a subsequent page. She died at Oundle about three years afterwards, in the beginning of the year 1724-5, and her remains were removed to Tichmarsh, where she was buried with her ancestors.

'This excellent woman having borne so honourable and kind a testimony to the tenderness, fortitude, and piety of our author, in the last scene of his life, is entitled to particular respect from his biographer. It is therefore with great satisfaction that I have endeavoured to rescue her name from oblivion, (for she who was so zealous in recording the merits of others, remains herself without a monument;) and that, as a further proof of her virtues, I add an eulogy on her, which has been obligingly communicated to me by Mr. Walcot:

"Conversation one day after dinner, at Mrs. Creed's, running upon the or[igin of names], Mr. Dryden bowed to the good old lady, and spoke extempore the f[ollowing verses]:

"So much religion in *your* name doth dwell,
Your soul must needs with piety excell.
Thus names, like [well-wrought] pictures drawn of old,
Their owners' nature and their story told.—
Your name but half expresses; for in you
Belief and practice do together go.
My prayers shall be, while this short life endures,
These may go hand in hand, with you and yours;
Till faith hereafter is in vision drown'd,
And practice is with endless glory crown'd."

'These verses, as well as the introductory account of the occasion that gave rise to them, are copied from an original paper now before me, written in an elegant female hand (probably that of one of her daughters); which was found in the cabinet of Mrs. Mary Walcot, late wife of William Walcot, of Oundle, M. D. and grand-daughter to Mrs. Elizabeth Creed; being the daughter of John Creed, esq., her brave son above mentioned, who died at Oundle, Nov. 21, 1751, in his seventy-third year.—Part of this paper having been worn away by time, I have supplied by conjecture the few words enclosed within crotchets, which appear wanting. The word within crotchets in the third verse, or some other word of two syllables, seems to have been inadvertently omitted in the original transcript.

'* See Appendix, No. IV."

Mr. Malone then vindicates the Christianity and moral character of Dryden, whose life indeed seems to have been sufficiently pure, though some of his writings have an opposite tendency. Our editor shows that the stories concerning his funeral originated from a Mrs. Thomas, a person of no credit. As the funeral was singularly splendid, it attracted envy and observation; but the plain fact was, that Dryden having died on the 1st of May, 1700, a magnificent funeral was projected by several persons of quality, and the body was in consequence conveyed to the College of Physicians, whence, after Dr. Garth had pronounced a Latin oration in his praise, it was, on the 13th of May conveyed to Westminster Abbey, attended by above one hundred coaches: so that the tales concerning lord Jeffries, the non-attendance of the choir, the breaking-in of the mob, &c. &c. are mere fictions.

When Mr. Malone asserts, p. 392, in his zeal for Dryden, that the works of the third earl of Shaftesbury are almost forgotten, he only shows that he is more conversant in antiquarian scraps than in polite literature. We shall not follow him through his account of Mr. Dryden's sons and the astrological nonsense imputed to their father,—another fiction of the inventive Mrs. Thomas, here sufficiently confuted by dates.

'Dr. Johnson conceived, that no description of Dryden's person had been transmitted to us; but, on the contrary, there are few English poets, of whose external appearance more particulars have been recorded. We have not indeed any original whole-length portrait of him, such as that very curious delineation of Pope, with which we have been lately gratified, whence a more perfect notion of that poet's external appearance may be obtained than from all the friendly drawings of Richardson; yet from various descriptions of Dryden's person that have come down to us, a very adequate idea of it may be formed. He was certainly a short, fat, florid man*, "*corpore quadrato*," as lord Hailes some years ago observed to me; "a description which Æneas Sylvius applied to James the First of

* So, *perhaps*, in Radcliffe's News from Hell, 1682:

"Laureat, who was both learn'd and *florid*,
Was damn'd long since for *silence horrid*."

'Again, in The Medal of John Bayes, 4to. 1682:

"Methinks the ghost of Horace there I see,
Lashing this *cherry-cheek'd* dunce of fifty-three."

'(Blockheads, it is observable, in all ages have vented their spleen against men of parts, by calling them *dunces*.)

'See also The Hind and the Panther Transversed, 1687:—"*Smith*. What, is not there good eating and drinking on both sides? You make the separation greater than I thought it.

"*Bayes*. No, no: whenever you see a *fat rosy-colour'd* fellow, take it from me, he is either a Protestant or a Turk.

"*Smith*. At that rate, Mr. Bayes, one might suspect your conversion: methinks, thou hast as much the face of an heretick as ever I saw.

"*Bayes*. 'Such was I, such by nature still I am.' But I hope ere long I shall have drawn this pampered *paunch* fitter for the strait gate."

Scotland." The same gentleman remarked, that at one time he wore his hair in large quantity, and that it inclined to gray, even before his misfortunes; a circumstance which, he said, he had learned from a portrait of Dryden, painted by Kneller, formerly in the possession of the late Mr. James West. But perhaps his lordship here is not quite accurate. By "before his misfortunes" was meant, before the Revolution; but the portrait in question, I suspect, was painted at a later period. From other documents, however, it appears that he became gray, before he was deprived of the laurel*. In Riley's portrait†, painted in 1683, he wears a very large wig: so also in that by

---

* See The Laureat, 1687:

> "See there a youth, a shame to thy *gray hairs*,
> Make a mere dunce of all thy threescore years."

'Probably, however, he had not divested himself of his wig when these lines were written.

'† The earliest portrait of Dryden hitherto discovered is that in the Picture Gallery at Oxford; which, together with the portraits of Buchanan, Ben Jonson, Dr. Aldrich, and Laurence Hyde, earl of Rochester, was presented by George Clarke, esq. fellow of All-Souls college, who represented the University of Oxford in parliament from 1715 to 1735. He was contemporary with Dryden, for he was born probably about the time of the Restoration; having taken the degree of M.A. in 1683; of B.C.L. in 1686, and in 1708 that of D.C.L. Dr. Clarke had travelled into Italy, and was well acquainted with ancient and modern pictures. From this portrait, which is dated in 1655, but appears from the dress to have been painted soon after the Restoration, the engraving, No. I, prefixed to this volume, was made. The painter is not known.

'The portrait of Dryden painted by Riley in 1683, from which an engraving was made by Peter Van-Gunst, for the first octavo edition of his Virgil, published in 1709, is in the possession of William Davenport Bromley, of Baginton Hall, in Warwickshire, esq., the representative of the right hon. William Bromley, speaker of the house of commons in the reign of queen Anne; from whom it descended to the above-mentioned gentleman. The poet here holds a sprig of laurel in his hand; is dressed in a loose gown of a yellow-brown colour, and wears a large wig. This picture, I am informed, is still in perfect preservation.

'In "The Laurel, a poem on the poet laureate," which was published in 4to. in January, 1684-5, are the following lines relative to this portrait, from which it should seem that our author was never painted by Lely:

> "But O, for some immortal hand, that can
> Make thee live too, even in thy outward man!
> Thy pen, which only could, has drawn thy mind:
> But where for this shall we a pencil find?
> Famed Vandyck's dead, and Lely is no more;
> And Fate for this has left but one in store.
> The matchless Riley is for this design'd;
> For this, kind fates, ye Riley left behind.
> See the bold piece with its own object strive;
> It strives for verse, and would be more alive.
> See all the muses drawn within his face,
> Or features that would all the muses grace.
> It grieves me that there any thing should be,
> Beside thyself, to give such life to thee.
> Then only give to him that makes thee live,
> What my poor mortal pen can never give:
> Give him the life that triumphs o'er the grave,
> The life that Cowley to his Vandyck gave.
> Weak artless hands can postures, dresses draw;
> From their loose strokes those looser figures flow:
> Give me that master's hand, that art divine,
> That shews my face, and shews it to be mine,

Closterman, done at a later period. By Tom Brown he is always called "*little* Baye;" and by Rochester, when he quarrelled with him and wished to depreciate him, he was nick-named—Poet Squab.

All that proud Athens boasts, or stately Rome,
Does from their poets or their painters come;
Here both conspire to make one masterpiece,
The pride and shame of Italy and Greece."

'From Closterman's portrait of Dryden, (see p. 437,) a mezzotinto was made by William Faithorne, jun. which has been copied for the present work. See No. 2. I know not where the original picture now is.

'Sir Godfrey Kneller appears to have painted several portraits of Dryden. That which was presented by our author to his kinsman of Chesterton, was a half-length, and finely painted. In this portrait the poet wears a wig, and holds a sprig of laurel in his hand. It is not known where it now is. See p. 326, n. 2. In p. 327, I have supposed that this picture was presented by our author to his kinsman, in consequence of the present made by Mr. John Driden in return for the poem addressed to him; but a letter which has since come to my hands, shews, that could hardly have been the case; for his kinsman's donation appears to have been made only about a month before the poet's death.

'From another portrait, also in a wig, an engraving was made immediately after Dryden's death; and prefixed to Luctus Britannici. Neither the painter, nor engraver, is known. Here the poet holds the laurel in his *right* hand: in the two following portraits in his *left*. It was copied for Nichols's Select Collection of Poems, in eight volumes. I know not where this picture now is.

'The portrait of him painted by Kneller, in his gray hair, from which Edelinck made an engraving at Paris in 1700, belonged to Jacob Tonson, and is now in the collection of William Baker, esq. member of parliament for Hertfordshire. It was painted, I believe, in 1698. Edelinck's print, from which No. 3, prefixed to this volume, is copied, is unquestionably the finest engraving of Dryden that has hitherto appeared. A bad copy of it was made in 1702, by S. Coignard. Either the portrait from which Edelinck's print was done, or that above mentioned, (which also may have been painted by Kneller,) is highly commended for its spirit and truth, by B. Buckeridge, the continuator of De Piles: see Luctus Britannici, p. 48.

'From another portrait also by Kneller, formerly in the possession of Edward, earl of Oxford, an engraving was made by Vertue in 1730; and Houbraken, in 1743, made another engraving from the same picture, which is among the Illustrious Heads. The picture which sir David Dalrymple, lord Hailes, saw in the possession of the late James West, esq., was, I suspect, that which had belonged to lord Oxford; which probably fell into Mr. West's hands, on the sale of that nobleman's fine collection of books and pictures in the year 1742.

'A writer in the Gentleman's Magazine for April, 1792, vol. 62, part i. p. 293, says, that "there is an original portrait of Dryden, by Kneller, in the possession of Ralph Sneyd, esq. of Kiel, in Staffordshire, one of whose ancestors [William Sneyd] married Frances, daughter of sir John Driden, in the year 1666; and that this picture was brought by her from Canons-Ashby at the time of her marriage, and has been in Mr. Sneyd's family ever since."—That there is a portrait of Dryden at Kiel-Hall is very probable; but if it was brought from Canons-Ashby in 1666, it unquestionably was not painted by Kneller, who came into England in 1674.—It is not likely that sir Robert Driden, the brother of Frances, should have been possessed of a portrait of the poet. If the picture at Kiel-Hall be Kneller's, it was probably painted at a much later period, and given to Mrs. Frances Sneyd by her brother, John Driden of Chesterton.

'There is another original portrait of Dryden at Bilton, near Rugby, in Warwickshire, which belonged to Addison, and, together with a large estate, was possessed by his only child, Mrs. Charlotte Addison, for near seventy years; who in that long period, though extremely affluent, did not erect any memorial to her father in Westminster-Abbey, where he was buried, and yet remains without a tomb. This portrait, on her death in March, 1797, with the estate of Bilton, became the property of the hon. John Bridgeman Simpson, second son of lord Bradford.

'A crayons drawing of Dryden, which long remained in the mansion-house of sir Gilbert Pickering, bart. at Tichmarsh, was purchased about twenty years ago,

From an epigram written soon after his death, we learn, that he wanted that vivid eye for which Pope was distinguished*.' P. 430.

We were rather surprised to find the large mole on Dryden's right cheek omitted in all the three portraits prefixed to this volume, while it is found in the common portraits, but generally upon the left cheek, perhaps owing to the transposition in the engraving. The estate left to Dryden by his father was of 186 acres, let for 60*l.* a year, but one third appertained to his mother during her life. Mr. Malone confutes some tales concerning his income at more length than they deserve; and informs us from Spence's anecdotes that he obtained 1200*l.* for his Virgil.

Dryden used to say, that if he had any talent for English prose it was derived from the writings of Tillotson. Some anecdotes on Dryden are annexed, buried amidst a mass of

---

when all the furniture of that house was sold. This drawing, which appears to have been made when he was about fifty, was esteemed by the Pickering family a very strong likeness. It is now in the possession of William Walcot, jun. of Oundle, esq. The initial letters of the artist's name by whom it was done, are, J. P.

'The late Horace, earl of Orford, was possessed of a small whole-length portrait of our author, sitting, by Maubert, who died in 1746, and is said to have painted Wycherly, Congreve, and Pope, from the life. A duplicate of this portrait is in the possession of Charles Bedford, of Brixton Causeway, esq. It is extraordinary, that lord Orford (Description of Strawberry-hill, p.7.) should have supposed that his mother was *great niece* to Dryden. The truth is, his maternal grandmother, Elizabeth Philipps, the wife of John Shorter, esq. was second cousin to the poet's *sons*. Dryden's great grandson and lord Orford would have been fourth cousins.

The origin of his error was, the supposing Elizabeth Dryden, the wife of sir Richard Philipps, to have been *sister*, when in fact she was *aunt*, to the poet.

'A head of Dryden drawn by Fab. Steele, (I know not whether an original or a copy,) was formerly in the possession of the Rev. Mr. Bilston, chaplain of All-Souls college, in Oxford, (M. A. in 1723,) and now belongs to the rev. Mr. Crutwell, author of a work entitled "The Concordance of Parallels," intended to serve as a concordance to the Bible in any language. An engraving from a copy of this head was given in The Gentleman's Magazine for 1791; vol. lxi. p. 321.

'All the prints of our author, not here mentioned, are, I believe, copies of some or other of the engraved portraits above enumerated.

* 'In "Epigrams on the Paintings of the most eminent masters," by J. E. [John Elsum] esq. 8vo. 1700, I find the following lines:

"The Effigies of Mr. Dryden, by Closterman. Epig. clxiv.

"A sleepy eye he shews, and no sweet feature,
Yet was indeed a favourite of nature:
Endow'd and graced with an exalted mind,
With store of wit, and that of every kind.
Juvenal's tartness, Horace's sweet air,
With Virgil's force, in him concenter'd were.
But though the painter's art can never shew it,
That his exemplar was so great a poet,
Yet are the lines and tints so subtly wrought,
You may perceive he was a man of thought.
Closterman, 'tis confess'd, has drawn him well,
But short of Absalom and Achitophel."

'In a note on the word *feature*, in the first of these verses, which the writer is pleased to call an epigram, he observes that "*feature* is but a stroke or part of the countenance, but is here by synecdoche used for *the whole*."

'Another particularity of his countenance was, a large mole on his right cheek, which all his portraits exhibit.'

trifling and tasteless quotation. Will's Coffee-house, we learn, is N° 23 in Great Russel-street, and Dryden lived at N° 43 Gerrard-street. The story of the almanack, p. 499, is a jest of the sixteenth century; and many of the other tales and notes savour of anility. How a picture (p. 535) can be less than a half length, and larger than a three-quarters, we can scarcely conceive.

The appendix contains Dryden's patent, the agreement concerning the Fables, the bill for his funeral, and some other trifles.

Upon the whole, never was the life of an elegant writer compiled with more confusion, or in a manner more unworthy of his works. Could Dryden return and peruse it, he would conceive that the present age is insane, and that manly knowledge and refinement had completely yielded to laborious trifling and scraps of nonsense. But we must not rashly condemn Mr. Malone, who perhaps intended this volume as a mere foil to the rest.

ART. VI.—*An Essay on Sculpture: in a Series of Epistles to John Flaxman, Esq. R.A. With Notes. By William Hayley, Esq.* 4*to.* 1*l.* 7*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

POETRY, painting, and sculpture, have been justly denominated sister arts; and, with the affection of sisters, they bestow embellishments on each other. Phidias acknowledged that he conceived the idea of his immortal statue of Jupiter from the impressive description of Homer; and though the Hercules Epitrapezios of Lysippus is unfortunately lost in the wreck of empires, we still see the vanquisher of the Nemean lion relaxing his ponderous strength at the banquet in the characteristic verse of Statius. The descriptions given by Homer and Virgil of the figures engraven on the shields of Achilles and Æneas, and the exquisite detail of the sculptured forms which ornament the shepherd's cup in the first Idyllium of Theocritus, are happy instances of the powers of poetry in illustrating the designs of sculpture. In the subject of this Essay, therefore, Mr. Hayley is singularly fortunate. He possesses an opportunity of expatiating in the wide fields of ancient art. He is called to the contemplation of those exquisite forms of strength, dignity, and beauty, which elevate the mind above common ideas, and fill it with veneration and enthusiasm.

If such a subject have not uniformly drawn forth from our poet the 'thoughts that breathe and words that burn,' if we occasionally find him feeble and languid in his versification, and vainly labouring to express in appropriate language the great ideas which seem successively to rise within his mind, our severity should be disarmed by considering the inauspicious circumstances in which this volume was composed.

'I nunc et versus tecum meditare canoros,' says Horace, describing the interruption under which the poet too frequently labours amidst the tumult of a crowded city. But still more imperious are the interruptions which he experiences whose head, like that of our author, is bowed by sickness, and whose mind is agitated by watching the progressive and irremediable sufferings of a beloved child. Every feeling heart must here sympathise with him, and readily grant him the modest request which he petitions:

> 'Forgive paternal pain, that wildly flings
> An agitated hand across the strings,
> A shade of sorrow o'er his triumph throws,
> And sighing, bids th' imperfect pæan close.' P. 162.

This work is divided into six epistles, addressed to John Flaxman, esq. each of which is illustrated by copious notes. The first opens with the following supplication to war to spare the sculptor returning from Rome.

> 'Infuriate War! whose gory flags unfurl'd,
> Waft dire contagion round the madd'ning world,
> Spare, in thy rage, or in thy pride defend,
> Art's hallow'd pilgrim, Virtue's gifted friend,
> The travell'd sculptor, after years of toil,
> Nobly pursu'd on many a foreign soil,
> Hast'ning, with deep-stor'd mind and practis'd hand,
> To prize and decorate his native land!
> Fierce as thou art, those shadowy forms revere,
> By Science hoarded, and to Fancy dear;
> Which in the plastic soul of Genius rest,
> Folded, like future gems, in Nature's breast!
> To peaceful Sculpture's unarm'd son accord
> Safety and honour for no mean reward:
> He can requite thy favour—he can give
> Thy dear lost heroes yet again to live;
> And faithful still to thee, with martial fire
> To speak in marble, e'en till War expire.' P. 3.

To this prayer succeeds a sketch of the studies and situation of the author and his friend. And here we cannot help thinking that Mr. Hayley's perpetual recurrence to his own ill health gives an air of querulousness to this portion of his work, and a querulousness utterly inconsistent with the dignity of suffering resignation. We would willingly respect affliction, but we must acknowledge that we here find too much of that 'dull complaint,

> 'That makes e'en pity's wearied spirit faint.'

We were also surprised to find a poet of Mr. Hayley's classical taste falling into the vulgar inconsistency of employing indiscriminately the second person, both singular and plural, when immediately addressing himself to his friend:

'And adding, as *you* climb Discovery's hill,
The scholar's learning to the sculptor's skill;
Those years that roll'd o'er *thee* with lustre kind,
Rip'ning *thy* labours much, and more *thy* mind. P. 5.

The second epistle contains a detail of the different ideas on the origin of the art of sculpture, and a sketch of its progress in Asia, Egypt, and the early ages of Greece. Mr. Hayley justly supposes that the birth of sculpture cannot be exclusively claimed as the glory of any single region of the earth; as, wherever the human passions have existed, we find that superstition and affection have produced rude efforts of this species of art. He, however, thinks it probable that the fertile regions of Asia were ornamented by the first productions of the chisel. He then proceeds to describe the style of the Egyptian artists. Hastily quitting the ponderous masses which arrest the eye of the traveller on the banks of the Nile, he traces the rise and progress of sculpture in the Grecian states; and attributes to the following causes the perfection which sculpture attained in this celebrated theatre of the sister arts:

'Say why in sculpture Greece has reign'd supreme?
Nature with marble gave her rocks to teem;
And fostering Freedom bade her chissel trace
Unfetter'd forms of dignity and grace;
Propitious both to art: but higher still
Flows the bright fountain of her plastic skill.
Homer first vivifi'd the public mind,
Arm'd it with strength, with elegance refin'd;
From him, that mind with images replete,
As sculpture potent, and as painting sweet,
Grew by degrees, in various branches bright;
Congenial faculties pursu'd his flight;
And Phidias rose, while Art and Nature smil'd,
The mighty poet's intellectual child
Whom Sculpture boasted in her proudest hour,
By heaven invested with Homeric power.' P. 34.

In this book are noticed the works of Dædalus, Endæus, Gitiades, Dipænus, Bupalus, Athenis, and Antenor.

The third epistle treats of the Grecian sculptors of later times—Myron, Polycletus, Phidias, Praxiteles, Euphranor, Lysippus; and describes the colossus of Rhodes, the Laocoon, Niobe, Hercules, Apollo, and Venus. The following description of the Jupiter of Phidias is written in Mr. Hayley's best manner:

'Genius of ancient Greece! whose influence ran
Through every talent that ennobles man;
O'er bright ideas taught the mind to brood,
And feast on glory, as its native food;
Bear me, in vision bear me, to that ground
Where Honor's fervent spirit breath'd around;

Where gay Distinction held the garland high,
And thy prime wonders gladden'd every eye!
Thy favourite precincts at my wish appear,
Where hymns of triumph fill the raptur'd ear;
My eager feet have passed thy olive grove,
And touch the threshold of Olympian Jove!
'Lo, in calm pomp, with Art's profusion bright,
Whose blended glories fascinate the sight,
Sits the dread power! Around his awful head
The sacred foliage of the olive spread,
Declares that in his sovereign mind alone
Peace ever shines, and has for ever shone.
'The temple's spacious precincts scarce enfold
The grand quiescent form of ivory and gold.
The symbols of his sway, on either hand,
Delight and reverence at once command.
Behold his right sweet Vict'ry's image bear,
Form'd, like his own, elaborately fair:
His left a sceptre with rich light invests,
And tranquil on its point his eagle rests;
His sandals are of gold; a golden robe
Proclaims his empire o'er the living globe:
For earth's mute creatures, on his vest are seen
With flowers, and first the lily as their queen.
'The rich compartments of the throne enfold
Ivory with ebony, and gems with gold:
Adorn'd with images, four massive feet
Sustain the radiance of the regal seat.
Around each foot four joyous forms advance,
Four Vict'ries, weaving a triumphant dance.
The throne's high summit shapes more lovely still
With animation and with beauty fill:
The Graces here upon their parent wait;
His filial Seasons there, and both in triple state.' P. 52.

The colossus of Rhodes, too, is drawn with the hand of a master: but we think Mr. Hayley has failed in his attempt to pourtray the affecting group of the Laocoon. It must, however, be confessed that this exquisite subject has peculiar difficulties; and it may be truly said that, if he have failed,

'magnis tamen excidit ausis.'

In the fourth epistle Mr. Hayley notices the few remnants of Etruscan art which have been preserved from the destroying hand of time. He then proceeds to delineate the course of Roman ravage; and fired with indignation at the remembrance of the havoc committed, he bursts forth into the following denunciation:

'Woe to the land, abjuring arts refin'd,
That ask the patient hand, the polish'd mind;

And vaunting only with tyrannic sway
To make surrounding provinces their prey:—
Rapacious arrogance, for outrage strong,
May boast a cruel triumph, loud and long;
At last the coarse gigantic glutton dies,
O'ergorg'd, and sinking from his bloated size:
So sunk the spoiler Rome, who from her birth
Drew execration from the bleeding earth.
Too fierce for arts, that claim a milder soul,
Their works she blindly prais'd, or basely stole.
Fast bound or silenc'd in her iron spell,
Her ill-starr'd neighbour first, Etruria fell.
Far, as her force increas'd, her rapine spread;
Beneath her grasp the sweet Sicilia bled;
And, amply deck'd with beauty's sculptur'd charms,
Fair Syracuse was spoil'd by savage arms.
There Roman avarice, of ruthless heart,
First gloated on her prey of Grecian art;
And like a blood-hound, on the taste of gore,
Hunted with fierce inquietude for more.' P. 91.

He next traces the decline of the art of sculpture through the series of Roman despots, and notices its temporary revival under the reign of Adrian. Transported in imagination to the villa of that monarch, he beholds the Genius of Sculpture displaying to the emperor, in prophetic vision, the fall of Rome, and the future glory of Byzantium.

The fifth epistle is appropriated to the discussion of the moral influence of sculpture in the Pagan world, and to the praise of eminent writers on ancient art. Adverting to the asylum which the statues of the gods afforded to the unfortunate and the criminal, he thus feelingly depicts the violation of the temple of Neptune in the persecution of Demosthenes:

'See, on Calauria's shore, to Neptune's shrine
Flies the fam'd Greek, of eloquence divine;
He, whose strong sense, adorn'd with Freedom's charms,
Made Philip tremble for his silver arms,
Ere that insidious king, false friend of peace,
Sapp'd, by corruption, the high soul of Greece:
Her fame-crown'd orator, his triumph past,
Driv'n by Adversity's o'erwhelming blast,
In Neptune's temple deems he yet may meet
An heavenly guardian and a calm retreat.
Delusive hope! for e'en those sacred shades
The blood-hound of Antipater invades.
Yet Freedom's champion, in his mental force,
Still finds the suffering Pagan's brave resource,
By friendly poison well prepar'd, to foil
The mercenary villain's murd'rous toil.
Shock'd to behold the wretch of blood profane
The hallow'd precincts of a peaceful fane,

He views this outrage with indignant eyes,
And at the base of Neptune's statue dies;
Blest to resign his glory-giving breath
In the mild arms of voluntary death!' P. 125.

This scene is elegantly illustrated by a sketch, executed in a superior style by the son of Mr. Hayley, whose eulogy is the subject of the sixth epistle, and whose career of honour, as we learn from a postscript addressed to Mr. Flaxman, is now unhappily closed for ever by a premature death.

From the perusal of the extracts we have made from the work before us, our readers will perceive that the author's versification possesses its common character, and is elegant rather than nervous. He is occasionally too diffuse; and, would our limits permit, we could point out a variety of couplets, the second lines of which are only introduced from the dire necessity of furnishing a rhyme. There are some rhymes, too, whose frequent recurrence is altogether wearisome to the ear, and we now particularly allude to those deduced from '*heart*' and '*art*,' '*man*' and '*plan*.' His metaphors are in general correct; but

'One vast whirlpool of oblivious night,' (P. 90.)

presents two incongruous ideas, or rather sets all comprehension at defiance.

In the notes, which are extremely copious, occupying the extent of 191 pages, Mr. Hayley has collected a variety of amusing anecdotes respecting the history of ancient art. We sincerely wish he may live to complete the design, we hereby understand he has conceived, of prosecuting this subject by an account of the revival of the art of sculpture, and of tracing its progress in modern times.

ART. VII.—*Phytologia; or the Philosophy of Agriculture and Gardening. With the Theory of Draining Morasses, and with an improved Construction of the Drill Plough. By Erasmus Darwin, M.D. F.R.S. Author of Zoönomia, and of the Botanic Garden.* 4*to.* 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Johnson, 1800.

THE great and principal object of Dr. Darwin in this work is the physiology of plants, a subject which has scarcely yet appeared, at least with advantage, in an English dress; though the publications of Hales and Grew, of Bonnet and Du Hamel, of Spallanzani and Ludwig, have left little more than the labour of compilation. To compilation, however, Dr. Darwin should not be confined. When he speaks of this work, in the Introduction, as a supplement to the Zoönomia, we were led to expect some singular opinions. We recollected the animated filament, the perceptivity of plants, their amours, &c. which rendered that celebrated work the poetry of medicine, as the Botanic Garden truly

was the poetry of botany. We have not been wholly disappointed: as a compilation the present volume merits respect; but we cannot speak highly of the author's additions of a brain, an uterus, and a complete nervous system to the vegetable kingdom. We have already alluded to the present publication, and now enter into a critical detail of it.

The simplest mode of nutrition is *increase* by the addition of inorganic particles to a body previously inorganic, as the deposition of quartzose particles from a petrifying spring to a substance already incrusted. The next which assumes the appearance of organisation is the union of crystalline particles to a nucleus of a given geometrical form; of particles which either assume the same form, or are completed in every instance by a regular and constant appendage, as a polygon terminated by a pyramid. Even in the mineral kingdom there is, however, one other step in the general scale of motion, viz. in the instances where a saline fluid, percolating either *through* crystals already formed by a capillary attraction, or along their sides by the common powers of attraction, increase the extent of the crystallisation in the fluid, or rise far above it, as in arborescent crystallisation of zinc, in the arbor Dianæ, as well as in some saline crystallisations. These assume the appearance of organisation, though really inorganic; and beyond this point the phænomena of the mineral kingdom do not reach. These, however, prove that forms apparently organised may be owing to the common effects of attraction in peculiar circumstances.

The next question that occurs is, what are the appearances most nearly connected with these? A naturalist will, at once, turn his eye to the branchings of the conferva or the coralline. If he take pure or sea water from a particular spot, and expose it to the sun, he will soon see apparent crystallisations collecting in a regular form, and constituting slowly a determined species. If the fluids be shown to him in glasses of a similar appearance, he cannot ascertain which is the mineral, which the vegetable, or which the animal. He must proceed farther, and employ chemical tests in aid of his observation. If, therefore, we consider the nascent appearances and increase, we shall find a difficulty of distinguishing, in the progressive shades, the imperceptible steps of nature, where the mineral ends, and where the vegetable or animal begins.—Let us make the same attempt at the other extremity of the chain.

We talk familiarly of animals, vegetables, and minerals. We divide them in our minds and in our systems; nor is a doubt started of the propriety of the arrangement. We will not take the circuitous argument of discussing definitions, but appeal to facts. We cut a vegetable to pieces, and make a perfect plant from each bud: we do the same with the polypus and various other animals. We inject the vessels of a production clearly

animal, and succeed equally in colouring many vegetables: we kill both by excess of heat and cold, by accumulated irritability, by poisons: each separates its excrementitious fluids, which, if retained, are destructive: each propagates its species by separating a body, which either is in miniature, or is capable of shortly becoming like the parent. Where then shall we draw the line between the animal and vegetable; and, for the reasons already assigned, where is the distinction between the vegetable and the mineral? As we have often observed, nature steps by shades so minutely varied, that the distinctions are those of our ignorance alone—the deficiency in our knowledge of those intermediate links which are every day discovered to fill the lacunæ.

Yet an obvious question will assault us. Is there then no distinction in the works of nature? are animals vegetables? or are either minerals? Is nature one mass of confusion, without beginning to end,—a circle, where neither can be distinguished? This is the point which we shall endeavour to clear, and for this purpose we have engaged in the disquisition.

From man, who stands proudly pre-eminent at the head of the scale, to the most simply organised, the steps by which the observer descends are minutely progressive, and the distinctions between each neighbouring object often difficult: yet man differs from the bird, the fish from the insect; the insect again from the vegetable; and it can be at once ascertained in what the difference consists. One great distinction arises from a greater simplicity of structure; from brain of a less bulk, till at last it become only an uniting point of the nervous system; a heart less complicated in the construction, till it be only a single cavity propelling and receiving blood; and propagation exhibiting a process almost confined to the developement of a mere bud. The animal nature, however, still remains; but, according to this gradual descent, what must we next expect?—no common sensorium; a system of vessels capable neither of propelling or again receiving fluids; and a still simpler, if there be a simpler, mode of propagation. To raise then the vegetable to the animal nature, by giving it perceptivity, almost consciousness; by fancying a brain, &c; is contrary to that simple progressive course which we constantly observe, and is as remote from what reason or observation points out, as it would be to style the nucleus, round which the calculous matter concretes in the bladder, its common sensory. On the contrary, there is not the slightest evidence that the fluids of vegetables ascend and return in different vessels; nor even of their possessing a continuous system of vessels; and their boasted motions are very clearly the necessary result of structure, in consequence of the action of the sun, either as warming or illuminating,—of heat or cold. Having thus stated the outline of the foundation of our reasoning, we shall turn to our author; and the space already employed will not

be wholly lost, as we shall not now have occasion to repeat animadversions on different parts of the work which might have been otherwise necessary.

Dr. Darwin commences with proofs that vegetables are an inferior order of animals. His proofs are judiciously selected, and fully demonstrate one position, that vegetables are inferior in the variety of their functions, and in the complication of their structure, to animals. He demonstrates, however, no more; a man may be more clearly shown to be a double animal, united by one organ, the heart, than vegetables can be raised in powers and functions above the polypus. Our author, however, steps on:

'The parts, which we may expect to find in the anatomy of vegetables, which correspond to those in the animal economy, are first a threefold system of absorbent vessels, one branch of which is designed to imbibe the nutritious moisture of the earth, as the lacteals imbibe the chyle from the stomach and intestines of animals; another to imbibe the water of the atmosphere, opening its mouths on the cuticle of the leaves and branches, like the cutaneous lymphatic vessels of animals; and a third to imbibe the secreted fluids from the internal cavities of the vegetable system, like the cellular lymphatics of animals.

'Secondly, in the vegetable fetus, as in seeds or buds, another system of absorbent vessels is to be expected, which may be termed umbilical vessels, as described in sect. III. of this work, which supply nutriment to the new bud or seed, similar to that of the albumen of the egg, or the liquor amnii of the uterus; and also another system of arterial vessels, which may be termed placental ones, corresponding with those of the animal fetus in the egg or in the womb, which supply the blood of the embryon with due oxygenation before its nativity.

'Thirdly, a pulmonary system correspondent to the lungs of aërial animals, or to the gills of aquatic ones, by which the fluid absorbed by the lacteals and lymphatics may be exposed to the influence of the air. This is done by the leaves of plants, or the petals of flowers; those in the air resembling lungs, and those in the water resembling gills.

'Fourthly, an arterial system to convey the fluid thus elaborated to the various glands of the vegetable for the purposes of its growth, nutrition, and secretions; and a system of veins to bring back a part of the blood not thus expended.

'Fifthly, the various glands which separate from the vegetable blood the honey, wax, gum, resin, starch, sugar, essential oil, and other secretions.

'Sixthly, the organs adapted to the lateral or viviparous generation of plants by buds, or to their sexual or oviparous propagation by seeds.

'Seventhly, longitudinal muscles to turn their leaves to the light, and to expand or close their petals or their calyxes; and vascular muscles to perform the absorption and circulation of their fluids, with their attendant nerves, and a brain, or common sensorium, belonging

to each individual seed or bud; to each of which we shall appropriate an explanatory section.' P. 5.

Such is the embryo, the bud of a great part of the work before us; and it will excite some surprise when we add that not a single proof has yet been brought to show that a vegetable contains any continuous vessels; we mean any vessels capable of confining a fluid like the arteries and veins of the human body. The only resemblance of vessels are those supposed to contain air, the structure of which may be most familiarly illustrated by supposing a ribband wound round a stick, and the stick withdrawn while the ribband retains its spiral form. We can conceive no way in which the fluids are carried through a vegetable system but by capillary attraction; and this takes place wherever the capillary fibres are exposed to a fluid substance. Yet in the fibrous extremities of roots some apparatus, a peculiar organisation, appears. This, however, leads to no vessel, and seems little more than a contraction of the fibres to diminish the aperture and accelerate the progress of the fluid. If there be no vessels, there can be no returning veins; and when the capillary attraction takes place in the seed, or in other parts, by a forced analogy we may speak of placental and other vessels; but we shall mislead if the comparison is brought closer. We certainly know that there is no propelling organ, nor can we at present account for the ascent of the sap in any other way than the following. After the fluid is received, the decomposition begins to take place, the separation of the gaseous fluids by the action of the sun on the leaves contributes to raise these, and the watery fluid below finds of course less resistance in the upper than in the inferior parts. When the gases reach the leaves, which by a closer analogy may be compared to the lungs of animals than the fibres can be compared to vessels, new combinations take place: the *jeu des affinites* produces new compounds, some of which are retained, and others, like excrementitious substances, are discharged. Where then are we to look for a glandular apparatus? We may, however, go farther, and ask whether, in the complicated structure of the human body, a gland is more than a congeries of vessels, favouring some delay in the circulation, and giving time for forming new combinations by the usual affinities. A muscular apparatus is still less probable. Every motion of the vegetable kingdom is the necessary effect of the usual powers of sun, air, moisture, or electricity. The hedysarum gyrans evidently moves its leaves by the action of the sun on a moveable peduncle: the mimosa is excited by an electrical principle, and the dionæa muscipula probably by a similar power. In the latter only is a final cause peculiarly conspicuous: to call, however, these motions in any view muscular, appears an abuse of terms, and a confusion of principles.

The individuality of buds is well ascertained; that is, each bud is capable of becoming a distinct plant. In this vegetables approach in their nature and functions to polypi, but are evidently of an inferior kind, less complicated in their structure, and less able to accommodate themselves to different situations and circumstances. The buds and budlets have no communication of the internal pith between them; for this obvious reason, that they are calculated for a separate existence, and designed to be taken from the parent plant without injury to it. These are sufficient motives for the structure, and there is not the smallest foundation, on this account, for considering the internal pith, which is scarcely more organised than the cellular substance of the human body, to be the living principle, analogous to the brain, medulla oblongata, and spinalis.

Dr. Darwin proceeds to consider the absorbent vessels of plants, and conceives that what are styled the air-vessels contain the nutritious fluid. We do not think, however, the argument employed for this purpose decisive. We shall select the passage.

'These absorbent vessels have been called bronchia by Malpighi and Grew, and some other philosophers, and erroneously thought to be air-vessels; in the same manner as the arteries of the human body were supposed to convey air by the antients, till the great Harvey by more exact experiments and juster reasoning, evinced that they were blood-vessels. This opinion has been so far credited because air is seen to issue from wood, whether it be green or dry, if it be covered with water, and placed in the exhausted receiver of an air-pump; and these vessels have therefore been supposed to constitute a vegetable respiratory organ; but it will be shewn hereafter, that the leaves of plants are their genuine lungs, and that the absorbent vessels and arteries become accidentally filled with air in the dead parts of vegetables.

'For as the vessels of vegetables are very minute, and have rigid coats, their sides do not collapse when they are cut or broken, as their juices flow out or exhale; they must therefore receive air into them. This may be readily seen by inspecting with a common lens the end of a vine-stalk two or three years old, when cut off horizontally. At first the vessels, which are seen between the partitions radiated from the center, appear full of juice; but in a minute or less this juice either passes on, or exhales; and the vessels appear empty, that is filled with air. This experiment I have twenty times repeated with uniform success, and it is so easily made by hastily applying a common lens after the division of a vine-stalk, that I think there can be no error in it; and it is wonderful that these vessels, which are found in the alburnum, and consist of a spiral line, whether they may properly be called absorbent or umbilical vessels, or consist of both, should ever have been supposed to be air-vessels.' P. 12.

We have not repeated this experiment, because it cannot be conclusive; for, from similar trials with lenses of different pow-

ers, we know it to be impossible to ascertain that the drops come from the spiral vessels; nor do the circumstances recorded support the conclusion. Did the spiral vessels contain a fluid which was immediately supplied with air, the latter could not enter until the whole fluid was evacuated, or only a bulk of air, equal to the fluid discharged, would penetrate. The lens need not be immediately applied; since the oozing drops, for many reasons, would continually appear; and the experiments show that, after a very short time, these vessels are wholly permeable by air. If we do not greatly mistake also, these spiral vessels are particularly conspicuous in the younger organs, and make but a small part of a plant when full grown, and when it requires a very large proportion of nutritious fluids. If these be not aërial vessels, it is not easy to say what are such. Our author speaks of some horizontal vessels as conveying air to the bud, and such vessels seem to be described by Du Hamel and Malpighi. There may be such; for it is admitted that the bud is an independent being, attached to, rather than depending on, the parent plant.

The third section, on seeds and buds, contains a number of ingenious remarks; and, even where we do not agree with our author, we read his reveries with pleasure. In this last observation: we particularly allude to his analogies between seeds and eggs, which we think extended rather too far. What we chiefly object to in this section is the part where the author contends that the ascent of sap is owing to the irritative motions of the absorbent (absorbing) vessels, not to capillary attraction. Analogy at least must here fail; for there is no instance of motion promoted by the irritability of vessels, except where that irritability is excited by distension: but distension must be impossible where the fibres are unyielding and rigid, and where there are no continuous vessels; not to add that irritability has been hitherto found inseparable from a muscular, that is, a living animal structure. All other motions proceed from an irregular contraction or dilatation in consequence of a peculiar conformation. Dr. Darwin is indeed correct in his rejection of capillary attraction as the sole cause of the ascent of the sap, as this will never make a fluid rise above the capillary tube; and for this reason we have added the expansion of the gaseous fluid, from a partial decomposition of the watery juices. Is our author equally correct in ascribing the *dry* rot to the fermentation of the sweet *juices* of those trees which are felled in the spring? Is he not aware that, in some situations, no wood is exempted from this species of rapid decay?

The leaves are undoubtedly the organs, which, like the lungs of animals, expose the fluids to the air, and admit the escape of those parts which will be hurtful to it; but our author, as usual, strains the analogy, and asserts that these organs con-

tribute to oxygenate the blood, when, in reality, oxygen is the fluid which requires to be separated. That the leaves have different vessels to carry the fluids forward to the upper surface, and return them by others along the under, we greatly doubt; nor do we think the experiments that follow conclusive; for, admitting that the milky juice in the under leaf is that which had been exposed to the air in the upper, what becomes of the colouring particles? We can as easily suppose that smaller apertures on the under side refused admission to the particles of madder, as that the madder was either changed or evacuated at the points of the leaves, which will not even admit of the passage of water. That the leaves are coloured by the access of air, as the blood is by the same means in the lungs, appears highly improbable, since they assume every varied colour, and we find the colouring matter resinous, the result of the union of carbone and hydrogen, from the soil and the decomposition of the water.—To return to the experiments:

'In the lungs of animals the blood, after having been exposed to the air in the extremities of the pulmonary artery, is changed in colour from deep red to bright scarlet, and is then collected and returned by the pulmonary vein. So in the leaves of plants the vegetable blood is rendered yellow in some plants, as in celandine, chelidonium; white in others, as in fig-leaves, ficus; and in spurge, euphorbia; and red in others, as in red beets, beta. And the structure of the leaf, as consisting of arteries and veins to expose the vegetable blood to the influence of the air, and to return it to the caudex of the bud at the foot-stalk of the leaf, beautifully became visible by the following experiment.

'A stalk with the leaves and seed-vessels of large spurge (euphorbia helioscopia) in June 1791, had been several days placed in a decoction of madder, (rubia tinctoria) so that the lower part of the stem and two of the inferior leaves were immersed in it. After having washed the immersed leaves in much clean water, I could readily discern the colour of the madder passing along the middle rib of each leaf. This red artery was beautifully visible both in the under and upper surface of the leaf; but on the upper side many red branches were seen going from it to the extremities of the leaf, which on the other side were not visible except by looking through it against the light. On this under side a system of branching vessels carrying a pale milky fluid, were seen coming from the extremities of the leaf, and covering the whole under side of it, and joining into two large veins, one on each side of the red artery in the middle rib of the leaf, and along with it descending to the foot-stalk or petiole. On slitting one of these leaves with scissars, and having a common magnifying lens ready, the milky blood was seen oozing out of the returning vein on each side of the red artery in the middle rib, but none of the red fluid from the artery.

'All these appearances were more easily seen in a leaf of picris treated in the same manner; for in this milky plant the stems and middle-rib of the leaves are sometimes naturally coloured reddish, and

hence the colour of the madder seemed to pass further into the ramifications of their leaf-arteries, and was there beautifully visible with the returning branches of milky veins on each side.

'In a plant which was sent to me under the name of senecio bicolor, but which I have not yet seen in flower, the upper surface of the leaf is green like most other leaves, but during the vernal months the under surface is of a deep red, whence I conclude that the vegetable blood acquires the red colour in the terminations of the pulmonary artery in the upper surfaces of the leaves, which becomes visible as it passes in the large veins on the inferior surface. In the same manner the red colour of the blood is most visible in the large veins beneath the leaf of the red veined dock, rumex sanguinea.' P. 43.

The whole of this section is pleasing and interesting: we shall select the principal conclusions.

'Recapitulation of the arguments tending to shew that the leaves of vegetables are their lungs. 1. They consist of an artery, which carries the sap to the extreme surface of the upper side of the leaf, and there exposes it under a thin moist pellicle to the action of the air; and of veins, which there collect and return it to the foot-stalk of the leaf, like the pulmonary system of animals. 2. In this organ the pellucid sap is changed to a coloured blood, like the chyle in passing through the lungs of animals. 3. The leaves of aquatic plants are furnished with a larger surface, and with points like the gills of aquatic animals. 4. The upper sides of aerial leaves repel moisture, like the larynx of animals. 5. Leaves are killed by smearing them with oil, which in the same manner destroys insects by stopping their spiracula, or the air-holes to their lungs. 6. Leaves have muscles appropriated to turn them to the light, which is necessary to their respiration, as will be shewn in the section on light. 7. To this may be added an experiment of Mr. Papin related by M. Duhamel. He put an intire plant into the exhausted receiver of an air-pump, and it soon perished; but on keeping the whole plant in this vacuum except the leaves, which were exposed to the air, it continued to live a long time, which he adds is a proof that the leaves are the organs of respiration.' P. 50.

'We may draw this general result, that the common leaves of trees are the lungs of the individual vegetable beings, which form during the summer new buds in their bosoms, whether leaf-buds or flower-buds, and which in respect to the deciduous trees of this climate perish in autumn; while the new buds remain to expand in the ensuing spring. Secondly, that the bractes, or floral-leaves, are the lungs of the pericarp or uterus, and to the growing seeds which it contains, as the bractes on the stem of the crown-imperial, fritillaria imperialis, and the tuft above its flowers. And thirdly, that the corol or petals are the lungs belonging to the anthers and stigmas, which are the sexual or amatorial parts of the plant, and to the nectaries for the secretion of honey, and to the other glands which affords essential oil and wax.

'Lastly, the stamina and stigma with the petals and nectary, which constitute the vegetable males, and the amatorial part of the female, as they in some plants appear before the green leaves or bractes, as in colchicum and mezereon, and in all plants fall off when the female uterus is impregnated, would appear to be distinct beings, totally different both from the leaf-buds, which produce a viviparous progeny; and also from the bractes with the calyx and pericarp, which constitute the vegetable uterus.

'They must at first receive nutriment from the vernal sap-juice, like the expanding foliage of the leaf-buds, or the bractes of the flower-buds. But when the coral becomes expanded, and constitutes a new pulmonary organ, the vegetable juices are exposed to the air in the extremities of its fine arteries beneath a moist pellicle for the purpose of greater oxygenation, and for the important secretion of honey; and then the anthers and stigmas are supplied with this more nutritious food, which they absorb from its receptacle, the nectary, after it has there been exposed to the air, and are thus furnished with greater irritability, and with the necessary amatorial sensibility, and live like bees and butterflies on that nutritious fluid.' P. 55.

The section on the aortal arteries and veins is somewhat too visionary. The principle and the arguments we have, in general, considered. It is singular, when the force of the ascent of the sap, as found in the experiments of Dr. Hales, was considered, that our author could continue to attribute it to attraction and the force of contracting fibres, which possess neither elasticity nor apparent irritability. There can be little doubt of some greatly superior power, viz. the expansion of newly-formed gases. We ought to add that Dr. Darwin has adduced several experiments in favour of his doctrine; but these, like the former, are apparently inconclusive.

It is impossible to do justice to the varied and extensive information displayed in the sixth section, 'on the glands and the secretions of vegetables.' The glandular power of vegetables is, however, gratuitously admitted from the products; but even when we allow the similarity of vegetable and animal secretion, we must inquire whether, even in the latter, any thing more occurs than a stagnation and new combinations, in consequence of chemical affinities. The fluids absorbed from the earth by the powers of the plant soon become mucilaginous, and these, with the water by which they are diluted, contain the elements of all the varied products of the vegetable kingdom. Suppose the watery fluid to be decomposed in the progress of vegetation, which we know to be the case, a little chemical knowledge will explain the general source of every secreted fluid, independently of the peculiar essential oil of each plant, which, as the epithet implies, is a part of its constitution, formed by that plastic power, the living principle, appropriate to, and distinctive of, each seed.

Of vegetable reproductions our author's account is, as may be expected, somewhat visionary, and the analogy between animals and vegetables upon this point too closely strained: yet the observations collected from a variety of authors, as well as those of the doctor himself, are peculiarly interesting. He seems, however, scarcely to have advanced a single undisputed step in the theory.

The muscles, nerves, and brain of plants, are the subjects of the last section of the first part; but the proofs are only those formerly noticed; and we must at least be permitted to think, that at present no nervous system has been shown to exist in the vegetable kingdom. The rest of this very ingenious and interesting work we shall notice in another number.

ART. VIII.—*A Modest Apology for the Roman Catholics of Great Britain: addressed to all moderate Protestants; particularly to the Members of both Houses of Parliament.* 8vo. 7s. *Boards.* Faulder. 1800.

IT is a melancholy reflexion that no one sect of Christians has ever been in possession of power without abusing it, to the injury of other sects, by the introduction of capital punishments, fines, or civil disqualifications. As all Christian churches have been more or less guilty of infringing in this respect the express commands of their Saviour, mutual reproach in the present day must appear with a very ill grace from any of them. Such a conduct in every instance, however, we may safely ascribe to mean and mercenary motives; and persons may belong to any of these different sects without approving of their civil conduct to those of a different persuasion. Intolerance is an odious vice—it cannot be too much detested; and he who in any shape persecutes for religious opinion must know, or ought to know, that he sins against the first precepts of the religion he professes.

But though Christians, as to their religious opinions, are only amenable to their Maker, yet as members of civil society, and where those opinions are connected with consequent actions, it may certainly become questionable, whether such persons ought or ought not to be tolerated by the existent government? and to this the answer seems not at all difficult. If the government be likely to receive danger from such opinions, the danger should certainly be prevented by the introduction of coercive laws. Upon this point, and upon this point alone, depends the right of withholding toleration from any religious sect whatever. Does the sect to whom toleration is refused maintain any opinions injurious to civil society,—any opinions contrary to the established laws of the land?

On this question the writer of the work before us has produced this modest apology;—a work replete with sound sense, real knowledge of the doctrines of his own and other churches, calm discussion, firmness, and temperance; a work which will, we hope, be read with attention by the members of the Union parliament, and be productive of the happiest consequences to the whole nation. The writer does not screen popes or bishops or catholics from the censure due to them for their crimes and cruelties committed in any age; but he reasons justly, that to impute to English catholics the same crimes is as absurd as to suppose every member of the church of England a bloody-minded persecutor, because Cranmer imbrued his hands in blood; or the Presbyterians to be treacherous and equally cruel, because their vindictive chief treacherously hurried his friend to the stake. Such horrid acts mutually perpetrated against each other should excite mutual forbearance, quell the turbulence of passion, and dispose every party to listen' to the small still voice of reason and the charitable precepts of our common religion.

To prove that the English catholics maintain no opinions subversive of the state, their religious opinions in general are considered; and first, those in which the church of England, the Lutherans, the Calvinists, the Socinians, and themselves, unanimously coincide. Marvellous indeed is it that these sects, who harmonise in so many points of importance, should persecute each other on articles, comparatively speaking, of very trivial moment. But in this comparison of opinion the writer appears desirous of approximating the churches of England and Rome more closely than their respective creeds will justify; and the members of neither church will probably think themselves much indebted to him for the outline of their articles of faith, as he has in many places exhibited them.

'One of the greatest controversies which ever disturbed Christianity, was that concerning the divinity of Jesus Christ. How was it ultimately decided? Not by Scripture: for both parties equally appealed to it; and, in my humble opinion, the Arians brought more plausible arguments from that repository than the Athanasians. Nor was the question decided by tradition: for both quoted the earlier Christian writers, as favourable to themselves; and it must be confessed, I think, that the Ante-Nicene fathers are, at most, ambiguous witnesses.—How then was the question, at length, resolved? Why, by a majority of suffrages in a council of 318 bishops; by whom the consubstantiality of the Son with the Father was declared to be an article of Christian faith: and this article of Christian faith makes the part, a principal part, of the Protestant, as well as of the Catholic creed. In the Protestant church of England, in particular, the creed of Nice is as much a standard of belief as in the church of Rome; and is publicly recited in the liturgies of both.' P. 46.

The infallibility of the pope has been a great bug-bear in

Protestant countries, and the opinion maintained on this head, in the publication before us, will scarcely be conceived by many to proceed from a catholic pen.—'In truth, papal infallibility is as absurd in itself as it is pernicious in its consequences,—the spurious child of arrogance and ignorance, fostered by credulity and matured by servile adulation.' Yet this is not the insulated opinion of one Roman catholic writer; for, expressed in different terms, it has been maintained by its own votaries in every age of the catholic church. The fact is, the Papists no more believe in papal infallibility, as described by the Protestants, than the Protestants themselves, and the opinion which the English catholics entertain of the pope is of a very different nature indeed.

'The primacy of the Roman bishop misunderstood is the original sperm, which produced a spawn of doctrines, not only hostile to every civil government, but eversive of primitive Christianity; by changing the kingdom of Christ into an absolute autocracy, and concentring in one person the rights of an whole community. Had the bishop of Rome been contented with a primacy of rank and dignity, which early usage, confirmed by the approbation of synods and imperial edicts, conferred on him, the enormities which sprang from an usurped and unlimited supremacy would never have ensued; and, perhaps, until this day, his primacy of rank would never have been vehemently contested, nor wrested from him by the civil powers.—But this is the common fate of all exorbitant claims: they seldom totter, without falling to their foundations.' P. 126.

Popish primacy is a very innocent doctrine as to the state. A catholic cannot be induced by it to any civil act whatever. But what! it may here be inquired, Can he not be absolved from his oaths of allegiance? To this question the author appears to us to have given a very satisfactory answer.

'If the English catholics imagined that the pope could dispense with their oaths, why have they so long persevered in refusing to take the oaths of supremacy and the test? and so re-enter, all at once, into their British birth-rights?—This consideration alone, one might think, should stop the mouth of captiousness itself.' P. 134.

If we remove this prejudice as to the power of absolving from oaths, and the absurd notion of deposing kings, which was never an article of the catholic faith at any time, it seems difficult to assign any satisfactory reasons for the modern intolerance of catholics; yet one is found in the hard word Transubstantiation, on which we think with our author—

'it would be hard to point out how the belief of transubstantiation can be dangerous to the state.

'The worst that can possibly be said of it is, that it is an absurd doctrine: and, I confess, if the words of the Council of Trent be literally understood, they seem to imply a palpable absurdity.—It is,

indeed, much to be lamented that church-assemblies, in their decrees and formulas of faith, did not content themselves with such terms as they found used by Christ and his Apostles. A great many idle contests would have thereby been prevented, and the Christian credenda kept within a much narrower compass than they now embrace. But Platonism first, and afterwards Peripateticism, having gradually got possession of the schools and universities, the simple doctrines of the Gospel were blended with metaphysical subtleties; and canons and constitutions were often made in a language, which perhaps the framers themselves did not well understand: hence some of their decisions seem absurd and inadmissible.

'For example, when the Council of Ephesus decreed the mother of Jesus to be the mother of God, Θεοτοκος; they decreed a blasphemous absurdity, if the word Θεοτοκος, *Deipara*, be literally understood: for how can the eternal and immortal God be born of a mortal woman? But our divines explain away the absurdity thus:—"The Godhead was united to the manhood of Christ—But the manhood of Christ was born of Mary—Therefore Mary may in some sort be called the mother of God." The terms Hypostasis, Person, and even the word Consubstantial, are liable to the same misapprehension; but above all the unlucky word Transubstantiation.' P. 150.

In fact, the more we consider the subject, the more we reflect on the opinions of the English catholics, who are very little removed from Protestants, the less grounds can we see for the propriety of separating them from the rights of British subjects. They hold opinions many of them unscriptural in our view of the subject, observe rites which to us appear puerile and trifling; yet we see nothing in their manners, religion, or customs, which can prevent them from being as loyal subjects as any other description of men in the united kingdom; and this work not only gives us reason to hope that their civil restrictions will be shortly removed by the interference of the legislature, but that the good sense of the catholics themselves will correct many of the errors that have crept into their worship, and gradually approximate it to the genuine simplicity of the Gospel. Both Papists and Protestants will gain much information from the perusal of this history, of which a great part was written above twenty years ago; and its appearance on the eve of a new system in this country we hail as an auspicious omen of the speedy cessation of religious feuds and discords.

ART. IX.—*Observations on the Authenticity of Bruce's Travels in Abyssinia; in Reply to some Passages in Browne's Travels through Egypt, Africa, and Syria. To which is added, a comparative View of Life and Happiness in Europe and in Caffraria. By Richard Wharton, Esq. 4to. 5s. sewed.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

THE ingenious author of this pamphlet having conceived that some passages in Mr. Browne's travels reflected on the

authenticity of Mr. Bruce's accounts, has entered into an elaborate defence of the latter author. We must confess that the paragraphs in Mr. Browne's book struck us in a very different point of view; as by proving from testimonies on the spot the authenticity of parts of Mr. Bruce's narrative, they contribute to impress additional credit on the whole. We shall, however, pursue Mr. Wharton's arguments with some attention, as they occasionally lead to important discussion.

The author begins with observing, that gratitude is due to intelligent travellers who explore distant regions for the sake of promoting knowledge. But to his remarks on the great delicacy to be observed in the detection of any errors committed by former travellers we cannot assent, and we suppose that Mr. Wharton's sensations are rather morbid when he imagines that Mr. Browne seems to have made his narrative the vehicle of oblique attacks on the character of Mr. Bruce. We cannot, on the contrary, conceive that even the nearest relation or most intimate friend of that gentleman can perceive the most remote symptoms of such an intention. While some persons affected to disbelieve that Mr. Bruce had ever been in Abyssinia, or could possibly have taken views which he produced on his return, Mr. Browne has shown, from incontestible evidence, that Mr. Bruce not only was in Abyssinia, but was actually appointed governor of a province there, and has mentioned the names of two Italian artists who accompanied him to Egypt. If these be oblique attacks, we are at a loss to know what can be called arguments in support of a narrative. That Mr. Browne should mention some mistakes, and even misrepresentations, into which Bruce has fallen, is agreeable to the practice of all the best travellers, ancient and modern, who have thought it an indispensable sacrifice to truth to point out any errors of their predecessors. The chief offence must be, that Mr. Browne has merely repeated two testimonies that Mr. Bruce had never visited the sources of the Abyssinian Nile; but certainly Mr. Wharton should have observed that Mr. Browne is only repeating the observations of others—of people, perhaps, who thought a visit to those sources impracticable, and therefore disbelieved the report of Mr. Bruce and his attendants. Yet, unhappily, Mr. Hartmann, in his edition of Edrisi, has evinced, by printing the two accounts in collateral columns, that Mr. Bruce's is a translation of that of Paye, published by Keircher and Ludolf in the seventeenth century. But we suppose that Mr. Wharton will argue that Mr. Hartmann had no design in that publication except to attack the authenticity of Bruce. He seems thus to resemble a knight-errant going in quest of enemies, and dreaming that every one is thinking of his mistress.

When Mr. Wharton observes that it is never esteemed honourable to bring a positive charge against a man after he

is dead, we can only smile at his inscience of all literary truth and discussion, which never consider whether a man be dead or alive. Our author next proceeds to pay some deserved compliments to Mr. Browne, but which seem to be merely the making his bow when he enters the room, while the remainder of his work is not so ceremonious. He asserts that Mr. Browne did not discover the Temple of Ammon, while major Rennell asserts that he did; and our readers will probably prefer the latter opinion. In a note, Mr. Wharton is bold enough to tell us the whole objects of Mr. Browne's journey, and to say that not one of them was accomplished. With equal justice, only on a larger scale, he might argue that the professed object of Christopher Columbus being to explore the East Indies by a new route, in which he totally failed, therefore he has no title to the fame which he enjoys; for far from discovering the East Indies from that quarter, he only discovered some unimportant islands, and landed once, without knowing it, on the continent of America. Why then should a man, whose designs were thus wholly frustrated, deserve such lasting honour from posterity? It is natural that he who admires without modification should hate without candour; and after totally forgetting Mr. Browne's discovery of Darfur, a most valuable accession to African geography, our innocent author proceeds to blame him because he has given an ornamental frontispiece (representing an Egyptian temple entire, from the description of Strabo,) to a book which in great part relates to Egypt. After childish sarcasms on the typographic neatness usual in works published by respectable booksellers, he says, that there is added a most amusing road book in imitation of Patterson. We suppose that our learned author never saw Ptolemy's celebrated geography, which consists entirely of such road books; and we beg to inform him that such itineraries are of infinite utility in settling the geography of obscure regions. The rest of this vapid and puerile attack, which the candid author calls 'outlines of the work,' we shall pass in silence; and be more tender of Mr. Wharton's reputation than to expose his want of sense and candour to a wider circle.

As the author proceeded we were in hopes he would have mitigated his unaccountable wrath; but to show his manner we must lay an extract before the reader.

'To what other cause, than an absolute determination to avoid the errors of former travellers, their exaggerations and their improbabilities, can we refer Mr. Brown's manner of observing on the cataract of the Nile? "About three hours walk from Assuan," says he, "is the cataract; in Ar. *shelal*, more properly *rapides*; being merely an easy descent of the river among numerous isles and rocks of granite, which obstruct the current. Far from deafening the spectator, the noise is scarcely audible." At Banute, half way or thereabouts be-

tween Assuan and Assiut, the mean breadth of this river is, according to Irwin, about a mile; and it may be collected from all writers who have treated of the Nile, that it does not roll down a very small body of waters in proportion to its width. Many circumstances have been, from the earliest times, related of this river, which have concurred to render it more famous than any other on the surface of the globe: but that which is now suggested to us by Mr. Brown, is infinitely more remarkable, and more forcibly entitles the Nile to a rank among the wonders of the creation, than any one before known. He has found out its amazing property of silence: and has witnessed, that so vast a stream makes its way "among isles and rocks of granite which obstruct the current," with such easy, insinuating address, that it avoids all the noise and uproar, which similar impediments constantly excite in our underbred rivulets of the North.

'Many an honest miller, who values the faculty of speech, and wishes to enjoy the privilege of talking quietly with his customers, will long to send his brawling millstream to learn taciturnity of its betters. For so rare is this Nilotic quality of silence in rapids, that the very circumstance of easy descent is sufficient to generate a deafening noise from a body of water, according to the vulgar constitution of nature; without the additional impediment of granite rocks.

'The ultimate disappointment of Mr. Brown cannot be attributed to want of exertion: since he seems to have been filled with a more unbounded spirit of enterprize, than any other traveller whose writings have been made public. Nor can we think that his progress into the desert was at all impeded from any apprehension of its ferocious tenantry: for the manners of brute-animals seem to have been familiar to Mr. Brown. Forlorn in the wilderness, he would not have experienced the tædium of travel. In the Lybian forest, the nurse of lions, his cheerfulness would have suffered no diminution; for in those animals, however horrible to others, Mr. Brown found a source of entertainment and an antidote of ennui.

'That entire exemption from prejudice, which seems to have been the peculiar happiness of Mr. Brown, enabled him not only to see objects and judge of events, through a distinct medium, but to observe circumstances and draw conclusions, which would have escaped a traveller more bigotted and biassed. This being so very clear as it is, from the whole tenor of his work; one cannot but wonder, that during his long abode in Darfur, and among the numberless conversations, which his gradual acquisition of their language must have enabled him to hold with the Furians, he did not set them right on one point: I mean, that he did not convince them how much they wronged his intellect, in supposing him attached to "any one of the rules of faith which have taken their tincture from the mosaic dispensation," in particular. It is evident that he thought "Mohammedism, a creed attended with no superstitious observances:" and in one passage he seems, after Lucretius, to consider Venus as the primæval deity; so that even the mosaic dispensation was not an absolute requisite, as the foundation of his creed; for in the Pentateuch we meet with no mention of that primæval deity. All the taunts therefore, and all the hardships, which he underwent in Fur, on account of his "supposed attachment to a sect, whose tenets among Mohammedans are thought absurd and

even impious," were unmerited: and I trust he will find a reception very different, in the next visit, which an ardor for science may induce him to attempt in Darfur. I would recommend it to him, on such an occasion, to translate (or to get some confidential jelab to translate) the following passage into the Furian language: and I will venture to predict, that the most violent of his persecutors will never afterwards charge him with any specific superstition whatever. It will appear very evident, that he considers religion on one broad basis, without leaning to any particular modification of it, or exempting one persuasion from the defects or enormities of another: religion, simply so called, is answerable for them all. In page 400 of his work, he says, "It is deeply to be regretted that religion, intended to conciliate mankind, should be the chief cause of their ferocity against each other, and should in an equal proportion have mingled poisons and antidotes." The philanthropy of Volney never poured forth a finer sentence than the above; nor did the sublime unintelligibility of Godwin ever generate any thing so beautiful, as the concluding period of it.' P. 13.

Nothing can be more remote from the genuine spirit of criticism than such wanton malevolence. Is it necessary to observe that Mr. Browne is only speaking of the noise of the Nile as heard from the road on which he travelled, while the ancients represent it as deafening a whole province? The death of the lions is similar to that of many favourite horses who have been shot to prevent their dragging out a melancholy existence. The insidious charge of irreligion only shows that Mr. Wharton's enmity has, like other passions, very much injured his understanding; for every candid reader will reflect, not only that Mr. Browne is merely speaking historically, but will allow that a man who suffered so much from Mahometan bigotry may be allowed to blame the cause of his sufferings. But as if Mr. Wharton were impatient to forfeit all credit with the discerning reader, he tells us (p. 20) that the bare inspection of D'Anville's map will be sufficient to contradict Mr. Browne's account of Darfur. We shall in charity suppose that Mr. Wharton never saw D'Anville's map.

After a number of sarcasms equally absurd, our author proceeds to his defence of Mr. Bruce, which (p. 21) he arranges under four heads.

1. Mr. Bruce did not, according to Mr. Browne, reach the source of the Abyssinian river.

2. Mr. Bruce is grossly mistaken in calling the Abyssinian river The Nile.

3. Mr. Bruce exaggerates or invents the danger arising from the moving sands in Africa.

4. Mr. Bruce mistakes (mistates) a fact in observing that he made his drawings of the Theban harpers on the spot.

Such, good reader, are the very *blue devils* of this pamphleteer; the causes which, in gloomy weather, and amidst a violent east wind, have prompted him to affix his name to charges the most

insidious and scandalous against a man of independent fortune and inoffensive manners, who thought proper to sacrifice his leisure, his health, and almost his life, to gratify a learned curiosity, and to promote the cause of science. A writer whose inability does not comprehend, or whose malice misrepresents the plain sense of the book which he attempts to criticise, cannot deserve a serious answer. Yet as some discussions, not uninteresting, may arise from a short consideration of this singular attack, we shall venture on a few more observations.

1. Mr. Browne no where asserts that Mr. Bruce did not reach the source of the Abyssinian river. He only repeats what was mentioned to him, without the smallest hint whether he believes or disbelieves it. This is, therefore, merely a gross misrepresentation. Mr. Wharton's qualifications to form any judgement whatever on such a topic may be judged of from his note (p. 24), in which he gravely asserts that little had been told concerning Abyssinia before Bruce wrote; thus, among twenty other travellers, totally forgetting Lobo, Alvarez, Tellez, and Ludolf; the two folio volumes of the last containing almost every thing that Bruce has narrated. The additions, however, which Mr. Bruce has made to our knowledge of Abyssinia are sometimes valuable; and his work being in the English language, and a more popular form, is better calculated to satisfy the public concerning that country than works only known to the learned reader. But when we find Mr. Wharton thus pretending to decide a question on which he has, by his own confession, read nothing, we are at a loss how to reprobate sufficiently such boundless effrontery.

2. The same observations will apply to our modest and candid author's observations on the real source of the Nile. Far from being guided (p. 28) by the writings of the ancients in his inquiry after the sources of the Nile, Mr. Bruce mistook quite a different river, distinguished by the ancients by quite a different name (Astopus), for the real Nile; an error which, as we have formerly observed, he might easily have avoided by inspecting the maps of D'Anville, even if he had no opportunity of seeing those of Ptolemy. It was, doubtless, more convenient for Mr. Bruce to find the source where he did; but latter geographers have not paid the smallest attention to his bold assertions on the subject, and have continued to derive the Nile from a very distant source to the south-west, supplying, as Mr. Bruce himself confesses, a more bulky stream than his pretended Nile, which only runs into it. How can we account then for this larger stream being totally omitted in his map? Our adventurous pamphleteer asserts that Mr. Browne differs from both ancients and moderns concerning the real source of the Nile; so that, in Mr. Wharton's idea, Ptolemy, the only real geographer of antiquity, and D'Anville, one of the best in modern times, (not to crowd our page with other names) are neither ancients nor moderns. Our

author affects to quote Pliny and Solinus on the subject; while the learned well know that the work of Solinus is only abstracted from Pliny, and Mr. Wharton confesses that Pliny places the source in Mauritania. We must pass many puerile remarks and misrepresentations, impardonable even in a colloquial controversy, far more in a work submitted to the public eye, and the risible arguments founded on the ignorance of Arrian, and the vague expressions of Diodorus Siculus, which do not in the smallest degree favour our author's notions. Nor do we ever recollect to have seen controversial absurdity pushed to a greater height than when the author attempts (p. 40) to press major Rennell into his service, while that geographer differs from him *toto cœlo!* But, after all, Mr. Wharton's most cogent argument on the business must not be omitted: 'Let him remember the proverb—*a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush:* if we relinquish the Nile we have, and Mr. Browne cannot find us another, what shall we say to him?' We would seriously recommend to Mr. Wharton to find out some other amusement than thus to waste his own time and that of his readers; for he certainly might just as well have written upon the Talmud as upon a literary question, in which he neither knows where to look for the materials, nor can discern the common rules and tendency of literary discussion. Immoderately fond of his own opinions, and bigoted to illiterate misconceptions, he perhaps expects to find in his readers a complaisance only known to the most infatuated self-importance.

3. It is natural that the wonders of Mr. Bruce should please Mr. Wharton more than the plain sense of Mr. Browne; and we leave our author in quiet possession of the moving sands of Africa, which cannot be more barren than his pamphlet.

4. This article refers to Mr. Bruce's employing two Italian artists in Egypt, which our sturdy controversialist represents as a *heavy charge* (p. 47). His miserable polemic spirit prompts him to urge that Mr. Browne has here proved too much, whereas he has here proved nothing but a broad fact well known in Italy as well as in Egypt; and far from being a heavy charge, the matter would, to any sound mind, appear as light as a feather. Mr. Wharton has certainly proved too much, for he has proved himself a mere pretender to learning, and a babbling disputant. He idly thinks to conciliate applause by railing against democracy, while he himself forgets the common decencies that are practised among gentlemen.

Nearly half this pamphlet is occupied with a 'comparative view of life and happiness in Europe and in Caffraria.' This is a piece of irony on Mr. Browne's last chapter, which is indeed open to many objections, and might afford a fair field for delicate satire. But Mr. Wharton's resembles that of a petulant school-boy, and far from exciting a smile, disgusts, by his confusion of ideas, and by a narrowness of mind furiously attached to its own dark

cell. This was to be expected from the peculiar and bigoted modes of argumentation adopted in the first part of his pamphlet. A man who has but few ideas and few opinions cannot bear to see them deranged; and to this cause we are inclined to ascribe our author's violent attachments and enmities, which, to men of real learning or solid good sense, would otherwise be wholly unaccountable.

ART. X.—*The Poems of Allan Ramsay; a new Edition, corrected and enlarged; with a Glossary. To which are prefixed, a Life of the Author, from authentic Documents: and Remarks on his Poems, from a large View of their Merits.* 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 1*l.* 1*s.* *Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

THE editor of this work informs us in his advertisement that he has added some poems which have escaped the diligence of former collectors, and has arranged the whole in a new order. This arrangement consists in dividing the pieces under the different heads of serious, elegiac, comic, satiric, &c. Prefixed is a life of Ramsay, which, from its pompous inanity, frigidity, and petulance of language, may be most safely ascribed to the *knight of the leaden mace.*

'While History employs her peculiar powers, in developing the intrigues of statesmen, in adjusting the disputes of nations, and in narrating the events of war, Biography busies her analogous pen in tracing the progress of letters, in ascertaining the influence of manners, and in appreciating literary characters. The pursuits of History must be allowed to be most dignified; the employment of Biography is most pleasing: it is the business of History to record truth, and to inculcate wisdom; it is the duty of Biography to pay just tributes of respect, and praise, to genius, to knowledge, and to virtue.' Vol. i. p. v.

The learned author has surely never perused the Lives of Plutarch, or even glanced at the Biographia Britannica, else he must have seen that his idea of biography embraces only one of the smallest of its provinces. In p. iv. he vehemently attacks a misrepresentation of his own, by his confounding persons who were born in a century with those who acquired fame in it. In p. xxxii. we find that lady Wardlaw must be the authoress of Hardicanute, because she was a woman of elegant accomplishments, and practised drawing and cutting paper with her scissars; and, as if this argument were altogether infallible, the author informs us in the next page, that he is perfectly satisfied of this fact. Where such puerile conjectures are advanced, and such positive conclusions deduced from them, we are naturally led to believe that the arguments, which would perfectly satisfy him, are precisely such as would dissatisfy a judicious inquirer.

We might elucidate by many quotations this writer's quaint and distorted language, such as '*shepherdish* poetry,' &c. &c. but our readers will be little pleased with an abstract of this specimen of clumsy and insipid biography.

Allan Ramsay's father was named Robert, and managed the lead mines at Crawford Moor. Allan was born at Leadhills in Lanarkshire, on the 15th October 1686. Losing his father while yet an infant, his relations bound him apprentice to a whig-maker. In 1712 Allan married Christian Ross, daughter of an attorney in Edinburgh, who in the next year produced his eldest son Allan, a painter of some note. Our poet afterwards became a member of the Easy Club, an innocent Jacobite society at Edinburgh; and in February 1715 he was promoted to the high distinction of poet-laureat to this association, and began to be known by his verses. His injudicious and absurd alteration of Christ's Kirk on the Green was published in 1716. He found an acquaintance of congenial dispositions in William Hamilton of Gilbertfield, who, in our biographer's stiff and fustian style, was 'a genius analogous to his own, who, having congenial propensities, readily entered into a reciprocation of metrical epistles.' This Hamilton, with a want of judgement similar to that of Ramsay himself, modernised the Life of Wallace by Blind Harry.

In 1721 Ramsay published his poems, collected into one volume 4to. and proceeded to publish various poetical effusions, both serious and comic. In 1724 he printed The Tea-table Miscellany, which was followed by a second, third, and fourth volume. This was soon succeeded by the collection of old Scotch poems, grievously altered and interpolated.

After writing several pastoral poems, the author at length, in 1725, published his chief work, The Gentle Shepherd, a piece certainly of some merit, but which his countrymen have overwhelmed with most extravagant panegyric. The author had now changed the trade of wig-maker for that of bookseller, and kept also a kind of circulating library. In 1730 he published his fables, and six years afterwards he unadvisedly erected a play-house, a scheme which was crushed in the following year by the act for licensing the stage. The latter part of his life was spent in ease and respectable company. He had built an odd kind of octagon house on the north side of the Castle-hill at Edinburgh, and showing it with some vanity to lord Elibank, mentioned that the citizens maliciously compared it to a goose pie; to which the peer sarcastically answered, 'Indeed, Allan, now that I see you in it, I think the term very just.'

Allan Ramsay died at Edinburgh on the 7th of January 1758, aged upwards of seventy-two. He was a squat-formed man with a smiling countenance, and wore a wig which did honour to his skill and profession.

The life is followed by remarks on the genius and writings of Ramsay, by a superior hand to the writer of the biography: yet the style is proiix and declamatory; nor can we always subscribe to the author's decisions in matters of taste. It is not the vulgarity of the Gentle Shepherd which disgusts a critical judge so much as the glaring intermixture of some English absurdly put into the mouths of the peasants of Scotland in the middle of the seventeenth century, when the events are supposed to have happened. The author should certainly have restricted himself to the plain and genuine use of his Scotish language, and not have interlarded it with English phraseologies, and phraseologies too, occasionally, of affected elegance and refinement. Thus constituted, it produces the same effect as if a painter were to finish some parts of his subject with the highest touches of miniature, while others were left with the rude stroke of sign-daubing. It is not because it is written in the Scotish dialect, but because it is not written in the Scotish dialect, that the language of the Gentle Shepherd becomes an object of critical censure.

In general the author of these remarks seems determined to admire.

'The silken plaid, which, at the period of the Union, was the universal attire of the Scotish ladies, and which is capable of more graceful variety of adjustment than any other piece of female dress, was beginning to be laid aside by many of the fair sex, after the rebellion in 1715, probably from being considered as a mark of a party. Ramsay had no dislike to it on that account, and he admired it as an elegant and decorous piece of dress. He resolved to vindicate its merits, and turn, if possible, the tide of fashion, which threatened to strip his countrywomen of their appropriate ornament. Tartana, or the Plaid, is written in English verse, and affords of itself sufficient proof that, had its author been a native of the southern part of the island, he would have held no mean rank in the catalogue of English poets. Ramsay would have been a poet in any language, if, as he truly observes, "good imagery, just similes, and all manner of ingenious thoughts, in a well-laid design, disposed into numbers, is poetry." The Tartana accords in every particular with this standard. In celebrating the distinguishing dress of the Caledonian nymphs, they themselves are with propriety his muses:

Ye Caledonian beauties, who have long
Been both the muse, and subject of my song,
Assist your bard, who in harmonious lays,
Designs the glories of your plaid to raise:
How my fond breast with blazing ardour glows,
Whene'er my song on you just praise bestows!
Phœbus, and his imaginary nine,
With me have lost the title of divine;
To no such shadows will I homage pay;
These to my real muses must give way:

My muses, who on smooth meand'ring Tweed,
Stray through the groves, or grace the clover mead;
Or those who bathe themselves where haughty Clide
Does roaring o'er his lofty cataracts ride;
Or you who on the banks of gentle Tay,
Drain from the flowers the early dews of May;
Inspir'd by you, what poet can desire
To warm his genius at a brighter fire?

'He begins by celebrating the antiquity of this attire:

'The plaid's antiquity comes first in view:
Precedence to antiquity is due:
Antiquity contains a potent spell
To make even things of little worth excel;
To smallest subjects gives a glaring dash,
Protecting high-born idiots from the lash:
Much more 'tis valued when with merit plac'd,
It graces merit, and by merit's grac'd.

'With what dexterity is the side-stroke of satire here given! it is the favourite weapon of the poet, and he is completely master of its exercise.

'He proceeds to contrast the easy elegance of the plaid, with the stiff and formal drapery of the French toilette. He notices its additional value, as being the labour of the ladies' hands; he reviews the most remarkable of the Scotish beauties, who wore this becoming attire; he enumerates its properties, as shielding alike from heat, from cold, from rain, from dust; and, finally, as improving, by half-concealing the female charms. He deduces its origin, in a beautiful fiction, from the Pagan mythology, adding a new amour of Jupiter to the Ovidian catalogue.' Vol. i. p. lxxvi.

We submit it to our readers to decide whether all this be not a mere waste and profusion of undeserved applause. The passages strike us, on the contrary, as ungrammatical, feeble, and prosaic, and, to speak in the professional language of the author, neither well combed, frizzed, nor curled. We cannot discover how the Caledonian beauties could form one muse, or how this muse could afterwards multiply into many, or how these multiplied muses should delight to break their necks by bathing in a cataract. But it is idle to throw away criticism on what must strike a reader of any discernment as incongruity itself.

The praise wasted on the two supplemental cantos of Christ's Kirk on the Green appears to us equally injudicious. It is not improbable, p. lxxx. that Christ's Kirk on the Green was written by James I. Yet James V, we well know, affected an antiquated language in his composition. The author's arguments, however, are highly inconclusive; for illiterative language was so common in the latter period, that Dumbar wrote one entire poem on it. It is not to be supposed that Banatyne wrote his collection with his own hand; and the writer errs grossly when

he compares that dark and ignorant century with the present enlightened one.

The criticism on the fables will be more readily assented to by the reader of taste; but that on the tales is disfigured by a strange anachronism concerning the origin of the Monk and the Miller's Wife, which is, in fact, a mere copy of the Friars of Berwick, a tale written in the beginning of the sixteenth century, and published in the Maitland collection of ancient poems.

'The Tale of Three Bonnets is rather a dramatic dialogue than a proper tale. It is a severe political satire against his countrymen, for agreeing to the union of the kingdoms. Had our author lived to the present age, he would have confessed the absurdity of his prejudices, and borne testimony to the falsehood of his own predictions. Abstracting from the error of its opinions, we see the genius of the author in the characteristic painting, the knowledge of life and manners, and the keen edge of satire, which are conspicuous in this performance. It was among those compositions, which the author, perhaps grown wiser as a politician, did not admit into the collection of his works; though it appears in a separate pamphlet, along with the two tales before mentioned, "printed for the author, and sold at his shop, Edinburgh." Vol. i. p. cix.

In Ramsay's songs the mixture of mythology and want of simplicity must sometimes afford striking objections. To the author's estimate of the Gentle Shepherd we cannot assent. After a certain period, poetry can only be justly estimated by universal reputation. Amintor and the Pastor Fido have been translated into all languages, and are celebrated throughout Europe, while the Gentle Shepherd remains almost unknown, excepting within the narrow limits of Scotland *. The comparison is indeed wholly injudicious. We are delighted with the *naïveté* and humour of the dialogues in the Cumberland dialect; but who would think of comparing them with the dialogues of Plato? The Italian dramas depict the fabulous scene of the pastoral age, while the Scotish pretends to be a representation of the life of modern shepherds. It is therefore only a proof of puerile imagination to compare works wholly dissimilar in their nature. We estimate the Gentle Shepherd by a different standard, and are delighted with the natural pictures of homely life, but regret, as we before expressed, the motley and improper colour of the language, which is sometimes pure Scotish and sometimes modern refined English, but generally a mixture of the two. If the reader will open the Gentle Shepherd, and underline those passages which are pure English, while the poet

* A translation of this poem into English made its appearance about six or seven years ago: but either from the want of interest of the poem itself, or the rigidity of the version, it never became a popular work.

with a little more care might have rendered the whole uniform, he would be instantly struck with this incongruity. Take, for instance, the first passage that occurs:—

> 'Peggy.—*Speak on, speak ever thus, and still my grief;*
> *But short I dare to hope the fond relief:*
> *New thoughts a gentler face will soon inspire,*
> That wi' nice airs *swims round in silk attire;*—
> Then I, poor me! with sighs may ban my fate,
> When the young laird 's nae mair my heartsome Pate.
> Nae mair again to her sweet tales exprest
> By the blyth shepherd that excell'd the rest;
> Nae mair be envied by the tattling gang,
> When Patie kiss'd me, when I danc'd or sang;
> Nae mair, alake! we' ll on the meadows play,
> And rin half breathless round the rucks of hay,
> As aft-times I have fled from thee right fain,
> And fawn on purpose that I might be tane;
> Nae mair around the foggy know I'll creep,
> To watch and stare upon thee while asleep.—
> But hear my vow—'twill help to give me ease:—
> May sudden death, or deadly sair disease,
> And warst of ills attend my wretched life,
> If e'er to ane but you I be a wife.' Vol. ii. p. 160.

This is far from being one of the most objectionable passages, and it is the first that occurred to us at a random inspection. We shall content ourselves with one other observation upon this poem, which is, that as the English parts of the dialogue are too dignified, so the Scotish parts are too vulgar and ludicrous.

We shall not attempt a criticism on the various poems here republished, but shall content ourselves with observing that a selection would have been more pleasing to the English reader, who cannot be supposed to be interested in the little localities of many of the pieces. The serious part appears to us deplorably without merit. A few of the comic and satirical pieces continue to please, but bear no comparison with those of Burns. Some of the songs here arranged under the head lyric, which more properly belongs to odes, are very well; but the chief merit arises from the tunes. The epistles and fables might have been omitted without any injury to the author's reputation, which may be said to rest entirely on the Gentle Shepherd, a drama which, if he had not hastily published, but had kept by him for some years, and consulted his ingenious friends so as to have rendered it an uniform picture of Scotish life and language, would have been exquisitely pleasing. Nor do we mean to refuse just applause to its merit, but merely to check those national enthusiasts who, not contented with holding it up as a pattern of perfection, rashly attack in its defence the more finished productions of Tasso and Guarini. We admit that these latter, and particularly that of Guarini, are too frequently guilty of conceits and

false glitter; but their language is at least symmetrical; never interfering with a foreign tongue when they wish to be peculiarly brilliant, nor seeking for simplicity in the vulgar phraseologies of their own. Far superior to both, however, is the Gentle Shepherdess of Fletcher—a pastoral written obviously in imitation of the Italian poets, and combining the purity of style exhibited by Tasso with the greater richness of Guarini, while it is completely free from the prettinesses which disgrace the pages of the Pastor Fido. Indeed we have several pastoral effusions in our own tongue which may well vie with this production of Ramsay. The pastorals published about twenty years since by Smith, the landscape painter of Chichester, are at least equal to it; and the Nymphidia of Drayton, and the Albion's England of Warner, are both very considerably superior. But perhaps every effort in bucolic poetry, whether ancient or modern, ought to yield to the exquisite Idylls of Gessner, which to the simplicity of Theocritus, add all the elegance of Pope or Virgil, and at the same time excite an infinitely superior degree of interest by the narration of facts and the exhibition of scenes which may be supposed to occur in the present day, without transporting us into the distant and fabulous regions of Arcadia.

ART. XI.—*An Inquiry into the Symptoms and Causes of the Syncope Anginosa, commonly called Angina Pectoris; illustrated by Dissections. By Caleb Hillier Parry, M.D. &c.* 8*vo.* 4*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies.

IT is always with regret that we differ from a physician of established credit, and an author of acknowledged abilities; and if in expressing our dissent we should appear unusually anxious, it must be attributed to our wish of establishing what seems to be truth, and of showing that a captious petulance has no share in occasioning this difference of opinion.

The disease is new in systematic authors, but to us it is not so, having, within these twenty-five years, seen nearly half that number of instances of it. The characteristic is certainly faintness, with a sense of stricture on the sternum, verging to *either* side, along the course of the pectoral muscle to its insertion in the humerus. In the advanced periods the pain extends lower down the arm, and in every fit the pulse is often natural, though occasionally smaller, quicker, and sometimes irregular. In the genuine disease the paroxysms are, at first, unfrequent, assaulting only on quick walking, going up hill, or on any extraordinary exertion: they afterwards attack on less exertions, on rising from a chair, or even turning in bed. Such we have often seen it, and in this account we by no means limit the original descriptions from

any wish to establish a particular cause, though we have more than once hinted a suspicion that the heart is not the organ originally affected.

Dr. Parry early entertained a suspicion very different. He thought the heart was the organ diseased, and that the disease was an ossification of the coronary arteries. We shall first notice his evidence for this opinion, and then examine the connexion of such a state with the symptoms enumerated. Three cases are distinctly related; and it is remarkable, that in the most clearly-defined instance no ossification, but symptoms of previous inflammation in the coronary arteries, were observed. This case, however, was in more than one respect complicated; and as Dr. Parry can draw no conclusion in favour of his opinion, we are unwilling to draw one in favour of any other. The Rev. Mr. S.'s case seems to us by no means an instance of angina pectoris. It wants the recurrence of regularly-increasing paroxysms, the direction of the pain to the arms, and the violent sense of stricture so feelingly in general deplored. It was certainly syncope from a disease of the aorta, as dissection proved. Mr. M.'s complaint was a flying gout, for the author expressly tells us, that when the limbs were pained the chest was relieved. We well know that angina pectoris is connected with a gouty habit, and that when gout becomes regular, the paroxysms are less violent, or the intervals longer; but no author has mentioned the pains alternating; and though we have watched for and hoped to find this mode of relief, we have never observed it.

It may be therefore safely asserted that Dr. Parry's opinion is not supported by the facts adduced in its favour; for in the only real instance of the disorder no ossifications were found, and they occurred in patients where the real case did not exist. We forget to mention that the pain in the case of Mr. S. was probably below the thorax, from the passage of gall stones, which were very numerous in the gall bladder.

It remains then to inquire whether the ossification of the coronaries is adequate to the effect, and though not a constant cause, whether it may not be occasionally such. No physiologist we believe contends that the coronary arteries, in any respect, assist the functions of the heart, except as blood-vessels sent to a muscular organ. If, in other parts, the blood-vessels are ossified in any great degree, mortification is the consequence, not irregular action. It may, however, be asked, where are the evidences that angina pectoris is a disease of the heart? The pulse is often not affected,—we believe never in the early stages of the complaint. The pain is in the cavity of the mediastinum; its direction that of the muscles. We recollect a case in one of the early volumes of the Medical Commentaries, where, on the application of a blister, the pain left the chest, and attacked the arm at the insertion of the biceps; and, on a blister being applied there, we have been cre-

dibly informed that it returned to the upper part of the sternum. The heart is we know affected, but the more common affection is ossification in the valves. In one instance we recollect feeling the substance of the heart and of the carneæ columnæ unusually hard; but in this case the pain was not particularly in the seat of the organ. In reality, the variable seat of the pain, the influence of antispasmodics, and the recurring paroxysms, prevent us from adopting the fixed cause assigned by our author, as in other points it is wholly inadequate to the effects produced. At least we think the cause cannot be a fixed organic affection. It is singularly remarkable also, that in every instance already recorded of ossified coronaries, no symptoms resembling angina pectoris are mentioned. Let us attend, however, to Dr. Parry's arguments:

'It appears, then, that from the whole mass of medical and anatomical writers, previously to the last edition of Senac's Treatise on the Heart, in the year 1773, not more than twelve or fourteen instances can be collected, in which the coronary arteries were found ossified; but that, since that period, seven instances have been seen of obstructed coronaries, in six of which they were ossified; all in cases of angina pectoris, and four actually predicted. From this view of the facts, I cannot avoid concluding, that there is an important connection between the rigid and obstructed state of these vessels, and the disease in question. It is, however, incredible, that this organic injury should be the effect of the disease, according to the opinion of Mr. Bell: For, in that case, in Mr. S., who had but one paroxysm, and in whom the principal trunk of each coronary was a bony tube, the whole process of perfect ossification must have been compleated in 48 hours.

'To this theory of the cause of the syncope anginosa, it may be objected, that in six genuine cases of that disease, which I have already mentioned, from Morgagni, Heberden, Wall, Fothergill, Percival, and Johnstone, no ossification of the coronary arteries was found on dissection. I answer, that, probably, in these cases the coronaries were not examined. The most accurate anatomists seem not to have been in the habit of looking for this organic injury. I have already stated the conviction of Dr. Jenner, that the coronary arteries were not examined in the first dissection by that excellent anatomist Mr. Hunter, and the accident by which Dr. Jenner discovered them to be ossified, in the case of Mr. Carter. Senac, in the second of his cases, says, that he first found these arteries ossified only by the resistance which they made to an injection; and in Mr. M., though we expressly sought for this disorder, yet we could not discover it by the feel, and should have concluded that the coronaries were not diseased, had I not proposed that they should be traced by dissection from the aorta. These facts prove that they have in general not been thought of, or have been sought for in a way which could seldom lead to their discovery. In reality, in old persons, dying suddenly, in the midst of health otherwise good, the heart usually abounds with fat; and we have seen from the dissections, that this is peculiarly the case with persons dying of the syncope anginosa. To this add, that the coro-

nary arteries are not, in point of situation, relieved from any solid part, or suspended in loose cellular membrane, but lie nearly imbedded in a firm muscular substance. From these circumstances united, I will venture to assert, that it will be seldom possible to discover ossification of the coronaries, without either cutting down to them, or attempting to introduce some substance into their cavities. If I am wrong in concluding that these vessels were not examined in either of these ways in the dissections to which I allude, gentlemen, who attended some of those dissections, are probably now living, and have it in their power to correct me. It is obvious, however, that no negative proof can in future be admitted, unless the examination be made in the manner which I have proposed.

'A second objection to the influence of ossified coronary arteries in producing syncope anginosa, may perhaps be grounded on the impossibility, that a temporary disease should arise from permanent malconformation. This objection, however, argues a very imperfect observation of the animal œconomy. Is it not certain that paroxysms of the epilepsy, occurring at long intervals, and with perfect intermediate health, have often arisen from exostoses, and other mechanical diseases within the cranium? Nay, have we not seen, in many of the cases above cited, that various organic diseases about the heart itself may subsist without producing constant interruption of its functions? In reality, these organic disorders may be considered as being within certain limits mere predisposing causes; that is, which produce such a degree of the proximate cause, as does not constitute apparent disease, but requires, for this effect, the co-operation of some remote, and, as it is usually termed, exciting cause. This position will obtain additional confirmation, as we proceed in our inquiry into the action of the causes of the syncope anginosa.' P. 109.

On this part we shall make only two short remarks. The reasoning at the conclusion we admit; but cannot allow it to be applicable till the author points out the nerves that the ossified coronaries irritate. The case of Mr. S. we have said, was not angina pectoris, so that Dr. Parry is not compelled to support the singular supposition of ossification being completed in forty-eight hours. It may, however, be asked, why these perfectly bony tubes had not produced the disease, if these be the causes?

The appearances in the bodies of those who have died in paroxysms of syncope, both of the common and present kind, are collected, we believe, with great care and diligence. The influence of various states of the body on the action of the heart seems also to be explained with great propriety. In ascertaining the cause, however, the author seems to have failed; nor can we highly commend the explanation of the symptoms as arising from the cause suggested in the present volume.

It is unnecessary to enter farther into this subject; nor, objecting to what is not the cause, must we be expected to explain what it is. To divert the attention, however, of pathologists from what we must consider a devious tract, we may ask, why the heart must be considered as the organ affected? The effects of the disease

appear there; but are we certain that the cause itself is seated in the same organ? In many paroxysms the pulse is not at all influenced. Whatever be the obstruction, the heart, though with evident injury to its own structure, overcomes it. Syncope, when owing to a disease of the heart, commences with a failure of its pulsation: in this disease the pulsation does not fail. Must we not then look farther for the cause? Opiates, bark, and even metallic tonics, check the disease, which would have very little influence on an organic affection. Angina pectoris attacks after the meridian of life; is induced by distress and anxiety, is connected with flatulence, &c. in the stomach,—disorders favouring a nervous, but not an organic complaint. Let us suppose for a moment a contraction in the carotids, or their extreme branches, to take place, and examine what would be the result. Fainting would be the immediate consequence. The heart would labour to overcome the obstruction, occasioned by a column of blood pressing on the aorta at its curvature. Enlargement in process of time would take place there; and this column pressing back on the heart, closing the valves, would necessarily, after frequent repetitions, favour ossification. We state these ideas not to establish a theory, for that would be improper in this place, but to show how the heart would suffer, and in what manner its organisation might be affected by causes operating at a distance.

ART. XII.—*The Favorite Village; a Poem. By James Hurdis, D.D. Professor of Poetry in the University of Oxford.* 4to. 6*s. sewed.* Johnson. 1800.

DESCRIPTIVE poetry, like landscape painting, is addressed to the multitude at large; it arrests the general attention, and obtains for the successful artist an abundant share of popular approbation. An instructed mind and a practised ear can alone produce a relish for the abrupt and daring flights of the lyric muse; nor is every one capable of dwelling with fixed attention on the sublimity of epic song. The cultivators of the higher species of the poetic art must be contented with the applause of the learned and discerning few: but the poet who pourtrays the appearances of nature, who, by judicious combination, elegance of language, and melody of numbers, gives grace to objects and incidents of daily occurrence, provides a feast for the public, and will not fail to obtain the reward to which he is entitled.—Hence, while the odes of Gray are read by few and relished by fewer still, the Seasons of Thomson are in the hands of every one, and the accuracy of his picturesque scenery and moral manners excites an universal interest. When Cowper sang Faith, Hope, and Charity, he sang in the wilderness: but what admiring multitudes attend him in his Winter Walk! who does

not love to resort to his tea-table, and hear him sweetly descant upon

'Fire-side enjoyments, home-born happiness?'

In The Favorite Village Mr. Hurdis has chosen a subject equally descriptive and capable of awakening general interest; for who has not, at some period of his life, dwelt with complacency on the pleasures of rural life and retirement?—who has not selected some individual hamlet, from the group he has visited, as the object of his particular attachment, and in the fulness of his heart exclaimed, with Horace,

'Ille terrarum mihi præter omnes
Angulus ridet!'

But in delineating an individual village, the poet must of necessity touch upon some features which are common to every one; and of course, by reviving the pleasing ideas which have formerly occupied the minds of his readers, he captivates their attention, and infuses a portion of his own spirit into their breasts. In declaring that the perusal of Dr. Hurdis's poem has in frequent instances thus affected ourselves, we give that free testimony to its merits which, we are confident, will be the most grateful to its author's feelings. And if, after this acknowledgment of its general excellence, we find it necessary to raise occasional objections to some of its constituent parts, we trust our remarks, as they shall be offered with liberality, will be received with candour.

The poem is divided into four books. In the first the author details the pleasures of his native village in the season of summer; the second exhibits its autumnal aspect; the third treats of its winter incidents; and the fourth delineates the delights of spring. On considering this division, our readers will be apt, in the first instance, so suspect that the professor must either be compelled to enter the lists with Thomson, who has preoccupied the same ground, or that his walk must be limited to the individual events and scenery of the village he has selected. We think that he has very ably extricated himself from this dilemma. Though he occasionally treads the ground which Thomson and Cowper have trodden before him, as to general painting, yet, by confining himself principally to the immediate subjects of his Favorite Village, he has avoided, as far as was possible, a rencontre with such formidable competitors. Thomson he has undoubtedly followed; and as to Cowper, he has obviously selected him as his model. But though he thus discovers the school in which he has been initiated, yet, by painting immediately from the scenery before him, he in a great measure avoids the servility of imitation.

In support of our opinion that our poet paints from nature, we would adduce his description of the bull;

'Now is it sometimes pleasure to steal forth
At sultry midnoon, when the busy fly
Swarms multitudinous, and the vex'd herd
Of milch-kine slumber in yon elm-grove shade,
Or unrecumbent exercise the cud
With milky mouths. Tis pleasure to approach
And, by the strong fence shielded, view secure
Thy terrors, Nature, in the savage bull.
Soon as he marks me, be the tyrant fierce—
To earth descend his head—hard breathe his lungs
Upon the dusty sod—a sulky leer
Give double horror to the frowning curls
Which wrap his forehead—and ere long be heard
From the deep cavern of his lordly throat
The growl insufferable. Not more dread
And not more sullen the profoundest peal
Of the far-distant storm, which o'er the deep,
Clothed in the pall of midnight premature,
At ev'ning hangs, and jars the solid earth
With its remote explosion. Tramples then
The surly brute, impatient of disdain,
And spurns the soil with irritated hoof,
Himself inhaler of the dusty cloud,
Himself insulted by the pebbly shower
Which his vain fury raises. Nothing feared,
Let him incensed from agitated lungs
Blow his shrill trump acute, till echo ring,
And with a leer of malice steal away,
Assault and vengeance swearing ere be long.' P. 23.

In the following group also we see the hand of a master, particularly in the description of the dray-horse:

'If not abroad I sit, but sip at home
The cheering beverage of fading eve,
By some fair hand, or e'er it reach the lip,
With mingled flavour tinctur'd of the cane
And Asiatic leaf, let the mute flock,
As from the window studious looks mine eye,
Steal foldward nibbling o'er the shadowy down,
And take their farewel of the savoury turf.
Let the reluctant milch-kine of the farm
Wind slowly from the pasture to the pail.
Let the glad ox, unyoked, make haste to field,
And the stout wain-horse, of encumbrance stript,
Shake his enormous limbs with blund'ring speed,
Eager to gratify his famished lip
With taste of herbage, and the meadow brook.' P. 56.

The colt also eating his winter repast is a good picture:

'In thick and horrent coat, no longer sleek,
With heels unclipp'd, and shaggy mane promiss,
In his lone corner stands the leering colt,

At leisure relishing his scanty meal
Of thin up-shaken forage. To the cow,
That with a wishful look his feast surveys
At fearful distance fixed, from his white eye
Reversed, he flashes indignation strong
And peremptory menace, crouching close,
And trampling loose on his vindictive heel,
With sullen down-laid ear.' P. 120.

We read with much interest the description of the child pursuing a butterfly.

'Behold again with saffron wing superb
The giddy butterfly. Released at length
From his warm winter cell, he mounts on high,
No longer reptile but endued with plumes,
And through the blue air wanders; pert alights,
And seems to sleep, but from the treach'rous hand
Snatches his beauties suddenly away,
And zig-zag dances o'er the flow'ry dell.
Across the lawn he flies. His sumptuous wing
Provokes attention in the playful child,
Who gallops brisk his not unruly cane
Over the daisies at his parent's door,
Diverting and diverted. With fix'd eye
The settled bird he marks, with eager hand
Grasps at the prize, but covets it in vain,
Gives chace impetuous, but unable soon
To reach the golden flutterer, aloft
Flying still free, with final fond attempt
Tosses his cap in air and strives no more.' P. 165.

We wish, indeed, Dr. Hurdis had enlivened his poem with more incident, and that he had more frequently thrown into his descriptions of the inanimate and brute creation some of the occupations and amusements of man. That he is capable of doing justice to these topics is evinced by his picture of the reaping and carrying home the harvest, from which we with pleasure select the following passage:—

'Yet, though it cheat the wheatear of its life,
Condemn not thou, my muse, the sullen cloud
Which often quenches in its gloomy folds
The sultry beam of day, assuaging shade,
To him that reaps, and him that wields the scythe,
Or plies the fork, or builds the load, or trails
The ling'ring rake embarrassed, at high noon
Affording freely. Opportune the shield
His canopy bestows; and shelter'd thus
Toil becomes nimble, industry alert,
And the wide field re-echoes with the sound
Of merriment indulged, and not repressed
By Autumn's suffocating heat intense.

The treader of the mow enjoys within
The mitigated air, nor finds the grange
A melting oven, by the sultry load
Fresh from the field with double heat supplied,
Till Hell seem present, wanting but its flames,
And thirst insatiable his dusty lip
And strangled fauces without mercy parch.' P. 49.

In the third book the amusement of sliding is happily described:

'Again night passes, and severer frost
Binds fast impeded nature. Soon as morn
Kindles, the village younker tries his foot
Upon the frozen margin of the pool,
Fearful to venture on the slippery floor,
Lest, bursting with abrupt and hideous crash,
It drown his instep, and his naily shoe
Drench with the chilling element below.
Bold with success, he tries a daring stroke
Along its verge, and now magnanimous
Darts o'er the fragile center of the flood
His long resounding slide. Safe borne to shore
He turns impatient, and with rushing heel
Shapes o'er the pond his parallel return.
Then round and round he leads his gliding team
Of school-mates well-assured, and panting sport
Glows with her effort, nor bestows a thought
Upon the lurking peril of her game.' P. 107.

Having thus copiously exhibited instances of the professor's success in the cultivation of descriptive poetry, we may be permitted to mention a few objections to passages which we cannot possibly pass over in silence. We disapprove most decidedly of the following part of his picture of a stormy sea:—

'——————Lo! as we speak,
The wolfish monster kindles into rage!
Enormous mastiff, how he gnaws his chain
And struggles to be free, fast bound by fate,
And never more to be let loose on man!
Aloud he bellows, with indignant paw
Dances upreared, and menaces the foot
Of earth with trembling diffidence protruded.
Lo! the saliva of his deafening tongue
Her pebbled instep stains! his rugged coat
Is whiten'd o'er with foam, wasted amiss
In the vain effort of his hoarse assault!' P. 36.

We deem it an instance of the bathos to compare the violent agitation of the tempestuous ocean to the struggles of a mastiff to break his chain. This is truly '*parvis componere magna.*' And when we see the metaphor so minutely traced, that the

saliva dropping from the mouth of the dog is the representative of the foam of the mountainous waves; nay more, that the whitening breakers are paralleled to the froth which the mastiff in its rage throws on its 'rugged coat,' we cannot but say with Longinus, Εκ των ὑψηλοτερων επι τα ταπεινοτερα αποδιδρασκει, δεον ποιησασθαι την αυξησιν εμπαλιν—Τεθολωται γαρ τη φρασει και τεθρυλλυται ταις φαντασιαις, μαλλον η δεδεινωται· καν εκαστον αυτων προς αυγας ἀνασκοπης, εκ τε φοβερε κατ' ολιγον ὑπονοστει προς το ευκαταφρονητον*.

We may instance, as an example of a similar error, the comparison (p. 69, 70) of the streaked vapoury aspect of the sky, not merely to the operation of some painter of 'gigantic arm,' but also to 'vagaries such

> 'As giddy bar-maid fashions, trailing brisk
> Her childish fancies o'er the sanded floor.'

The brow and breast of a mountain are classical images; but 'the swelling instep of a mountain's foot' (p. 10) conveys to us a mean idea, and is little better than burlesque. In p. 15 and 16 our professor descends into puerility, when he asks the mountains—

> ——————'Where is the vast scoop
> By which these ample vales and combs profound
> Were hollowed? Where is the stupendous axe
> Which cleft the shoulders of yon bulky cliffs?
> * * * * *
> Where is the car that bore the hills away
> To make yon ample *basin, bowl immense?*'

These meannesses and eccentricities of imagery are inconsistent with the sublime; for the sublime studiously avoids all such trifling: and scoops, axes, cars, basins, and bowls, when connected with the operations of Deity, are a machinery which we should rather have expected from sir Richard Blackmore, knight, than from a professor of poetry in the university of Oxford. Æschylus conceived the beautiful image of the ανηριθμον γελασμα of the ocean. We do not think Mr. Hurdis has improved upon this idea when he says,

> ——————'The blue deep
> Wears wrinkled laughter, and exulting bounds
> The shore along, with sycophantic air
> Welcoming fashion to her loved retreat
> Yon distant steeple, where she sits and smiles
> And dips her foot into the wholesome waves.' P. 31.

* "From sublime he descends to low and mean ideas, whereas he ought to have acted entirely the reverse; for the passage is obscure in diction, and confused, rather than strong, in its imagery: and if you attentively examine its several parts, instead of awful it will be found ridiculous."

This passage proves that a thought may be pursued too far—a failing to which, in our opinion, Dr. Hurdis is peculiarly addicted.

The publication is printed at the author's own press. We cannot say of it '*materiam superabat opus.*' Its coarseness of typography certainly proves that the subdivision of labour tends to the perfection of the mechanic arts, and by no means countenances the doctrine of 'every man his own printer.' We think the Favorite Village deserves to be exhibited in a much neater form.

ART. XIII.—*The Annual Hampshire Repository; or, Historical, Economical, and Literary Miscellany; a Provincial Work, of entirely original Materials, comprising all Matters relative to the County, including the Isle of Wight, &c. Vol. I.* 8vo. 10*s. Boards.* White.

THIS plan of an annual register of county history appears to us to merit the warm approbation of every philosophic observer of facts. It presents him with a variety of scattered materials, and tends greatly to enlarge the stores of useful knowledge. By thus concentrating and preserving a number of documents which would otherwise, perhaps, have been swept into the gulf of oblivion, an acceptable and, perhaps, an equal service is rendered to the historian, the biographer, the naturalist, and the politician. The editors of the Annual Hampshire Repository commence their labours by a summary of the civil and political history of that county, from the date of the king's proclamation of May 21, 1792, to the end of the year 1798. In the course of this summary they give an account of the state of parties during the violent political animosities which marked the commencement of the present war—the measures of internal defence adopted in consequence of the late foreign menaces—the plans which were projected to remedy the scarcity which prevailed in 1795—and the proceedings under the Internal Defence Act of the 38th Geo. III. A supplement to the county history contains copies of addresses, petitions, and other public instruments which were produced in the course of the above-mentioned period.

Next follows a chronicle of events digested under the heads of Births—Marriages—Preferments—Promotions—Deaths.

A very minute account of the navy, army, and church, composes the ensuing general division of the work.

Under the article Law, we have not only a list of acting magistrates and gentlemen of the profession who attend the Hants assizes and sessions, but also reports of assize and sessions causes.

We have also a list of county officers and members of par-

liament—an account of the ports of the county—and a list of imports and exports for 1798.

One of the most important divisions of the volume is the state of the poor, and charities for their relief.

The account of the state of agriculture is full and precise.

The antiquities and natural history of Hampshire form the subject of two distinct chapters.

Under the head of 'arts and sciences' we find only a list of pictures at Broadlands, the elegant family mansion of lord viscount Palmerston.

In the miscellaneous department we find a very satisfactory account of the conduct of the French emigrant clergy at Winchester, and the case of one of that number who has recanted the errors of the Romish church; so that religious conversion, it should seem, is not entirely in favour of the catholics.

In an appendix are contained provincial anecdotes of John Wilkes—the life of Mr. John Graves—a considerable collection of indifferent poetry—two essays—and a review of divers publications.

By the inspection of this skeleton of the work our readers will be enabled to form their own judgement as to the merits of its plan. Our own opinion is in favour of its general execution. In the detail of politics the ministerial zeal of the editors occasionally betrays them into supercilious remarks on the conduct of the remnant of opposition who yet appear in parliament: but considering the temper of the times, they are generally as candid as their own interest, and perhaps the existence of the work, will admit of. They will do well to dismiss in their future volumes the political history of the city of Winchester. Why should they thrust upon the public notice the particulars of the unconstitutional interference of noble families in the election of members of the lower house? Besides this, the minute detail of electioneering squabbles should not only be beneath their notice, but, from their local situation, must necessarily and insensibly betray them into injurious partialities; and we already find, by their last page, that lord Temple formally contradicts a part of their statements.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS....POLITICAL ECONOMY.

ART. 14.—*War proved to be the real Cause of the present Scarcity, and enormous High Price of every Article of Consumption, with the only Radical Remedies. By Robert Waithman.* 8vo. 2s. Jordan. 1800.

THIS pamphlet consists of two parts, the causes of the present distress, and their remedies, and is written in strong and animated language, supported in general by strong facts and sound reasoning. The present war (for the writer should have given this title to his pamphlet, as war in itself does not always produce scarcity) has occasioned our distress by the great waste and increased consumption of provisions from the mode of supplying our fleets and armies; which ought rather to be attributed to the improvidence and neglect of ministers, whose contracts have an obvious tendency to raise the price of every thing they require in the markets, to the immense load of public debt, and false capital it has created by paper money. This last is indeed a natural consequence of the public debt, though it arises likewise from the strange measure of permitting a commercial house to stop payment without incurring the penalty of bankruptcy, and from the prodigious increase of taxes. These different branches are explained fully and clearly, and with great knowledge of the subject.

On the remedies proposed the writer has not been so successful, and many of them are evidently chimerical. The first is to terminate the war itself; a measure most assuredly requisite for the happiness of the country, but, from various circumstances, not likely to take place—the cultivation of waste lands—the sale of crown lands—increase of cottages—the abolition or commutation of tithes—the taxation of parks—repeal of the income tax—reduction of military and pleasure horses—a new arrangement of the horse tax—and of the tax on servants. The addition of a new tax to any that the public are at present doomed to bear, seems to us a great inconsistency with the author's general views. The repeal of the income tax we highly approve of; and a judicious arrangement of various other taxes is as commendable as it would be ridiculous to expect it ever to take place. The rich are, according to the mode here proposed, expected to pay their proportion in taxation; that is, the man who maintains forty servants is to pay a progressive sum upon each beyond that paid for by him who keeps one only, as a matter of necessity. The propriety of such a regulation is pointed out indeed by common sense and justice; but while those, who have the modification of taxes, retain on an average half a dozen or ten servants each, it is a regulation which cannot be expected to meet with their concurrence. Equitable taxation, and

some of the reforms proposed by this writer, might lighten our present burdens; but the system throughout is in many respects so novel, and altogether so immense in its magnitude, as to make us tremble through every nerve. We were astonished that the author should fall into the vulgar error about small and great farms, as the increase in the size of the farms is a necessary consequence of increased taxation, and the idea of prescribing a limit to the extent of a farm is just so absurd, as to prescribe a limit to the quantity of cloth a linen-draper should be permitted to sell in the course of a year.

ART. 15.—*Letters of Cursitor, addressed to many of the principal Political Characters of the present Day.* 8*vo.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Morton. 1800.

Cursitor addresses himself with great energy to several eminent public characters; and though he is inimical to the general measures of administration, he reprobates with just severity the conduct of some of the opposition. But the chief feature in the letters before us is the unfortunate and calamitous war in which we are now engaged—a war described by him to have been

'begun...nobody knows why, and continued nobody knows wherefore: whose object has uniformly been nobody knows what, and whose termination will be nobody knows when: which has been, according to the veering of the weather-cock, a war for religion—a war for royalty—a war for political justice—a war for the balance of power in Europe—a war for our allies abroad—a war for the suppression of unconstitutional opinions at home; and, in fact, a war for every thing but what can ever justify the engaging in a war at all. A war that has spent more blood and exhausted more treasure, has accumulated more misery and produced more crimes, than any that can be named from the day of original sin to the present moment.' P. 61

These letters appeared first in the Sunday Review, and are now republished under the writer's superintendence—a distinction which they justly deserve, from their very great superiority over the generality of newspaper productions.

ART. 16.—*An Investigation of the Cause of the present High Price of Provisions. By the Author of the Essay on the Principle of Population.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Johnson. 1800.

A new cause of the high price of provisions is discovered by this writer, and supported in a very ingenious manner.

'Let us suppose a commodity in great request by fifty people, but of which, from some failure in its production, there is only sufficient to supply forty. If the fortieth man from the top have two shillings, which he can spend in this commodity, and the thirty-nine above him more, in various proportions, and the ten below all less, the actual price of the article, according to the genuine principles of trade, will be two shillings. If more be asked, the whole will not be sold, because there are only forty who have as much as two shillings to spend in the article; and there is no reason for asking less, because the whole may be disposed of at that sum.

'Let us suppose, now, that somebody gives the ten poor men, who were excluded, a shilling a-piece. The whole fifty can now offer two shillings, the price which was before asked. According to every genuine principle of fair trading, the commodity must immediately rise. If it do not, I would ask upon what principle are ten out of the fifty, who are able to offer two shillings, to be rejected? For still, according to the supposition, there is only enough for forty. The two shillings of a poor man are just as good as the two shillings of a rich one; and, if we interfere to prevent the commodity from rising out of the reach of the poorest ten, whoever they may be, we must toss up, draw lots, raffle, or fight, to determine who are to be excluded. It would be beyond my present purpose to enter into the question, whether any of these modes would be more eligible, for the distribution of the commodities of a country, than the sordid distinction of money; but certainly, according to the customs of all civilized and enlightened nations, and according to every acknowledged principle of commercial dealing, the price must be allowed to rise to that point which will put it beyond the power of ten out of the fifty to purchase. This point will, perhaps, be half-a-crown or more, which will now become the price of the commodity. Let another shilling a-piece be given to the excluded ten: all will now be able to offer half-a-crown. The price must in consequence immediately rise to three shillings or more, and so on *toties quoties*.' P. 5.

This reasoning is just to a certain extent, and it is supported by the principle laid down by Adam Smith; a name, which, when the idle declamation of self-sufficient, interested, and ignorant men has subsided, will, from the late attempts to obscure its honour, continue to increase in celebrity. 'The actual price, at which a commodity is sold, is compounded of its natural price, the price at which it can be brought to market, allowing the usual profit in times of moderate plenty, and the proportion of the supply to the demand.' Now, in these times, the price at which wheat can be brought to market has increased from several causes, the supply has been scanty, and the demand augmented; consequently the price of wheat must have increased —but why should it have increased in so great a proportion? This we cannot impute, as our author does, to the supplies granted to the poor, which have but a small effect—we may say not a hundredth part of the effect arising from other causes; and it is to be observed particularly, that by far the greater part of the poor, who are relieved by parish benefactions, feed on barley, not wheat. On this subject we must keep in view the last article, which may assist us considerably in our explanation. The nature of the demand is to be considered. Supposing the natural inhabitants of a country to remain equally numerous for three successive years, the first producing little more than an average crop, the second a little less than an average crop, the third considerably under an average crop, and that at the expiration of this period the number of actual inhabitants are increased in the proportion of eleven to ten by the influx of foreigners distributed not unequally over the whole country: in this case the price of wheat, in the last year, must be higher than in the first, and some of the inhabitants will be reduced to live on different grain. But if the new settlers, instead of being dispersed over the whole country live in one consociate spot, the

price of wheat must again be very considerably raised from the necessary price of carriage being now so much augmented. In this state Great Britain exists at present: the influx of foreigners produces some effect, but the number of indigenous inhabitants who now feed on wheat, compared with those who were accustomed to employ this esculent, is very considerably increased. The generality have left the places where they were in the habit of consuming a very small quantity, and now live not only on wheat alone, but on the finest part of it. They are now in our fleets and armies: and the mode of purchasing for them is also a novelty; at the present moment we meet with but one great purchaser, who can never be expected to make his bargains in the cheapest manner, nor to cast the same watchful eye over the purchased grain as the merchant. If we add to this the depreciation of money by the increase of it, or rather its representative, we cannot be at a loss to discover the real causes of the increased price of wheat, which cannot again subside until the consumption is restored to its usual level, and the purchasers are distributed in the usual manner.

We rejoice to see that this able writer endeavours to stem 'the popular clamour headed by the lord chief justice.' All good men are in our opinion called upon to exert themselves in the same cause, or our barns may be burnt, our markets deranged, and our country made a prey to anarchy and confusion. His remarks also on the inconsistency of the two outcries, the one against middle-men, and the other in favour of small farms, are just and pertinent; and we see, with increasing satisfaction, that the nature of the assize of bread begins to be better understood, and that several other pamphlets agree with this in wishing that 'the legislature would interfere no farther than to abolish that assize.' We have dwelt longer on this pamphlet than its bulk might warrant; but there is novelty in the mode of treating the subject; and though we differ from the writer in his leading principle in this work, as well as in his Essay on Population, we give him the utmost credit for his ingenuity, and the rectitude of his intentions.

ART. 17.—*The True Causes of our present Distress for Provisions; with a natural, easy, and effectual Plan for the future Prevention of so great a Calamity. With some Hints respecting the absolute Necessity of an increased Population. By William Brooke, F. S. A.* 8vo. 2s. Symonds. 1800.

The present distress in this country is ascribed to the monopoly of farms, the number of horses, the neglect in breeding cattle, disuse of fish, tithes, hop-grounds, and neglect of orchards. On these subjects some judicious remarks are made, though we are far from subscribing to all the author's conclusions. The monopoly of farms is a trite subject. In the distinction between great and small farms, too much is ascribed to the excellence of the latter. Besides, who is to draw the limit between a great and small farm? What legislature will prescribe the bounds to the size of a farm, when it does not prescribe what is far more necessary, any limits to the possession of landed property? We may also observe, that the ruin of the small farmer is not occasioned by monopoly, which cannot take place in farming, but is the necessary effect of the circumstances of the country. A farmer with twenty acres in England must be a greater slave than the most labo-

rious negro in the West Indies, and with all possible success would see the profits of his labour eaten up by the taxes, the tythes, and the poor rates. When the farms were in general small, the capital necessary to stock the farm and purchase the implements of husbandry was small likewise; the increase of taxation has necessarily increased this capital, and with it the extent of the farms. If taxation should continue at the same rate of increase, our farms must annually increase. On the subject of horses we agree entirely with our author; the number kept in this kingdom is enormous, and the quantity of land sown for the food of horses is very nearly equal to that for human consumption. Thus our horses diminish the supplies requisite for our fellow-creatures, and our politics strike at the sources of our population; for

'Who, that has his country's welfare at heart, but must reprobate in the strongest terms that unnatural and impolitic act, called the Marriage Act, which has not its parallel in the world? A law, although far from answering the illiberal policy of the framers of it, has caused more vice and disease in the land than the plague itself would.' P. 31.

On the resources to be derived from our fisheries the writer's remarks are excellent; but he forgets that the duties on salt are an effectual bar to the great advantages that might be derived from them. For the improvement of the metropolis he advises, with great propriety, that a fish-market should be erected at Hungerford, and one on the Surry side of the river, as Billingsgate is too small and too favourable to monopoly. We could with pleasure select many other useful hints from this work; and, though we do not agree with Mr. Brooke in dignifying the Turks with the epithet of 'wise and experienced,' we can exhort our legislators to meditate on many sound truths which are here laid before the public.

ART. 18.—*A short Enquiry into the Nature of Monopoly and Forestalling. By Edward Morris, Esq. Barrister at Law.* 8vo. 1*s.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

From the number of pamphlets lying around us on the present scarcity, and the common topics of monopoly, &c. we apply with pleasure to this short inquiry, and can recommend, and earnestly recommend, it to the perusal of our readers, trusting that it may either lead them to, or fix them firmly in, a right train of reasoning on subjects of the greatest importance as well as continual discussion. The principles of Adam Smith are presented in a very clear point of view in a narrow compass. Proper compliments are paid to the memory of lord chief-justice Coke; but the notoriety of his errors on political economy, and the freedom of trade, are duly noticed. The authority of the lord chief-justice, in his own department, ought to be of considerable weight; but when he travelled out of the record, when he was carried into the interior of a manufacture, or stood amongst the market people, and talked of buying and selling, he made as bad a figure as a higgler or a journeyman pin-maker would in haranguing a jury from the King's Bench on a question of law. Our author considers the policy of the legislature in former times, and of parliaments in more modern;

he shows the nature of trade by plain instances, and points out the consequences of the interference of the legislature, as well as the folly of the present outcry against monopolists, middle-men, forestallers, &c. The whole of this performance is executed in so masterly a manner, that we cannot refrain from recapitulating part of it in the writer's words.

'To reserve corn at one time in order to distribute it at another, to take corn from any one market in order to convey it to another, occasions no national evil; the corn is equally consumed, though the mouths which consume it are not the same: so far from having any prejudicial effect, if the scarcity in the market to which it is conveyed be greater than in that from which it was taken, the public is materially relieved. Our object ought to be, not that corn or any other article of provision should be plentiful at any particular time or any particular place, but that it should be found plentifully, if possible, but at all events in equal distribution throughout the different periods of the year, and over every part of the kingdom.

'A number of the plans recently proposed have a tendency to distrub this due and seasonable distribution. The recommendation of landlords to their tenants to thresh out their corn for immediate sale, and the sale of corn to the poor at a reduced price, are both of this nature. The relief which is afforded by this supply at one period is slight in comparison with the rigorous abstinence which is the inevitable consequence at another; as these measures connot increase the quantity of corn in the country. By lowering the price at one period they only advance it in a much greater proportion at another; the corn is on the whole dearer instead of cheaper; and these persons, though well-intentioned, are aggravating the distress which they mean to alleviate. If the reasoning of the preceding pages be correct, the influence of the persons engaged in the corn trade is our only channel of relief. The effect of their interference, is to procure an increased supply from the stock of other countries, and to induce a judicious management of our own; the "forestaller," and the "regrater" are not distinguishable from dealers of any other denomination. In their expectation of profit all persons who intervene between the grower and consumer must be governed by the same principle; and, according to this principle, their interest in the regulation of the price coincides with that of the public: These several modes of sale are contrivances of particular dealers, with the hope of gaining an advantage over their competitors; their tendency is to fix the due price with greater accuracy; to raise the price when it is more salutary to the public that it should be higher, and to reduce the price when it is consistent with the safety and convenience of the public that it should be lower.

'It is evident that the same reasoning which has been hitherto confined to corn, is equally applicable to every other article of commerce. The divisions which have taken place in the employments of the different persons concerned, must have arisen from their being the foundation of superior skill. The necessary consequence to the public must have been a better and cheaper supply. These modes of conducting trade have an influence the direct reverse of that which they were supposed to have by the framers of the prohibitions.' P. 49.

ART. 19.—*Inquiry into the Causes and Remedies of the late and present Scarcity and High Price of Provisions, in a Letter to the Right Hon. Earl Spencer, K.G. &c.* Wright. 2*s.* 1800.

A very judicious, sensible, and modest inquiry, containing much information on the nature of middle-men, which cannot, in these times of wretched ignorance, and we may say bigotry, on this subject, be too much diffused among the higher and the lower classes of society. It is a disgrace to some of the higher orders that they should stand in need of this information; and the lower are to be pitied if, through misrepresentations, which they have not the power of correcting, they should be occasionally hurried into excesses. The assize of bread is justly reprobated in this work as pernicious to the community. The remedies proposed to the evils under which we labour are:—1. Importation of corn by a free trade with the assistance of bounties. 2. The abolition of the assize. 3. Restraining prosecutions against dealers in corn, or a new modification of the laws on this subject. 4. Enforcing the act respecting stale bread. 5. Stoppage of the distilleries, and of the manufacturing of starch and hair-powder. In all these remedies we heartily concur with our author, and cannot conceive how those people can pretend to humanity and œconomical regulations in their families who waste as much flour, in the shape of powder, on their heads, as would afford good breakfasts for numbers of families of the poor. We trust that this pamphlet, with Mr. Morris's admirable work on the same subject, will considerably operate in removing many of those odious and impolitic prejudices which are at present too general amongst us, and are a disgrace to the nation.

ART. 20.—*A temperate Discussion of the Causes which have led to the present high Price of Bread. Addressed to the plain Sense of the People.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Wright. 1800.

The scarcity is here attributed to two bad harvests, and to the disproportion between the consumption and growth of corn in the island. The outcry against monopolisers, regraters, farmers, millers, &c. is justly reprobated, and the absurdity of it, notwithstanding the high authority on which it is founded, plainly demonstrated. The share which foreign hostilities have in contributing to the scarcity is denied from the nature of the corn-returns, during peace and war, for above the last hundred years; but the circumstances in which this differs from any preceding war are not considered. The mischief of a maximum is clearly shown; and on the whole it is a very useful and temperate discussion. Those chief points are to be seen in the following extract:

'What then I contend for is, that the high price of wheat and of bread is not the effect of monopoly and combination—is not the effect of the speculations of the farmer, the corn-dealer, or the miller—is not the consequence of the war. All these things have their weight in the scale, but it is not great or preponderating. It is the effect of an ordinary consumption considerably exceeding our ordinary produce, and of a produce, in the last and in the present years, below the average; the price is still further augmented by the increased wealth of the nation, and the consequent depreciation in the value of money. The remedies for this evil of high price are not to inflame the mob against monopolists—to restrain the freedom of the trade in corn, or to

fetter and check the commerce of the nation. The obvious remedies are, the more limited use of wheat, and a further encouragement to the importation of it, and the extension of our corn land, by the removal of every impediment which obstructs general enclosure; and by taking such measures as would tend to give greater encouragement to the cultivation of arable land. At present many circumstances operate which have a direct contrary tendency; the tithe of arable land is much heavier than of grass land, and the multiplication of horses kept for pleasure affords, perhaps, upon the whole, more encouragement to the cultivation of hay than of corn.' P. 32.

ART. 21.—*Thoughts on the present Price of Provisions, their Causes and Remedies; addressed to all Ranks of People. By an Independent Gentleman.* 8*vo.* 2*s.* Reynolds. 1800.

This independent gentleman, among the general causes he assigns for the scarcity, produces the following for his seventh and last.

'The increase of that spirit of rapacity and speculation which, with the new doctrines on almost every other subject, seems to pervade all orders and ranks of men, blinding them to all interests but their own, and even those the most present and most blended with immediate personal enjoyment, and inducing them to hold all public principle, nay, all regard for every thing, and every individual beyond the narrow limits of self, and its immediate connexions, as the extreme of folly, worthy only the contempt of the more enlightened; a contempt, indeed, with which we find it but too generally treated.' P. 3.

The cause of this cause might have employed this gentleman's mind in a much better manner than the hackneyed declamations against farmers, middle-men, monopolizers, &c. against whom he advances the vulgar and futile arguments, tending to destroy all freedom of trade, as well as all national prosperity and public justice. He is our advocate for the absurdest of all measures—a maximum, and vindicates it by the law on interest; a law, whose inexpedience and impropriety has been already exposed in more than one political essay of importance, and which may perhaps re-occupy the attention of our legislature. That an author, after the inquiry made on the last crop, should assert that there is no scarcity, appears to us the height of indiscretion; but in these cases, every one who advances the assertion should, at she same time, inform the public from what counties he derives his knowledge.

ART. 22.—*Observations on the present high Price of Provisions. In a Letter to the Lord Lieutenant and Inhabitants of Hampshire. By John Duthy, Esq.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Crosby. 1800.

The supposed causes of the present high price of provisions are considered under the following heads:—1. An increased consumption. 2. A diminished produce. 3. An increase in the expence of raising that produce. 4. A monopoly, under which section the popular clamour against monopolists is refuted; and the real monopolist, if there be any, is shown to be the minister. The manner in which he can be the only monopolist is well delineated, and in a considerable degree is founded on truth. The great master mischief is asserted to be the war, and consequently the grand remedy to be peace. The author

writes with a manly disregard of the imputation of jacobinism cast on every person who thinks differently from the ministerial circle; but a degree of asperity might have been propitious to the circulation of his pamphlet, and the bold truths repeated in it will certainly render him liable to much asperity in return.

ART. 23.—*The Scarcity of Wheat considered: or, a Statement of the Impolicy of the late and present Price of Wheat, the Consequences resulting from it, and Means suggested for its Prevention in future: in which the flagrant Practices of Farmers, Millers, and Bakers, are exposed, and the Corn Laws fully investigated. By the Rev. J. Malham, Vicar of Helton, Dorset, &c.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Wallis. 1800.

If the 'flagrant practices' ascribed to farmers, millers, and bakers, in this pamphlet, are really founded in truth, and not in this writer's imagination, he is highly culpable in not making a regular charge against the culprits, with whom he is acquainted, before the proper magistrate. But if no such things have really taken place in this country in the manner he represents them, he is then highly culpable, in times like the present, for propagating false reports. In a similar case the magistrates of Cambridgeshire have lately shown a good example to their brethren in other counties. A strange speech was made in the Common Hall of London, stating a most atrocious action pretended to have been perpetrated in Cambridgeshire. The audience were shocked at the recital, not conceiving it possible that a person should stand up in such an assembly, and utter such a charge without the best grounds for his assertion. The Cambridgeshire magistrates read the tale with astonishment; they had never heard of it in their respective neighbourhoods; they instituted an inquiry, sifted the matter to the bottom, and found the whole to be a falsehood. Thus, by a proper spirit, they vindicated their county from infamy, and gave to the public, under the signature of their worthy chairman, an account of the steps they had taken in this transaction. We recommend the same line of conduct to the magistrates of Wiltshire, and we shall then have either fewer innuendoes against nameless farmers and millers, or the true culprits will be properly punished.

RELIGION.

ART. 24.—*A Practical Improvement of the Divine Counsel and Conduct; attempted in a Sermon, occasioned by the Decease of William Cowper, Esq. Preached at Olney,* 18 *May* 1800. *By Samuel Greatheed.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Williams. 1800.

Whatever relates to so worthy, but unfortunate, a character as the late Mr. Cowper, cannot be uninteresting to the public, who have been so often amused by his playful sallies, captivated by his original and unrivalled genius—unrivalled we mean by his contemporaries, and, what is more to his merit still, excited to virtue and religion by his warning voice and his powerful invitations. The present sermon, however, has a peculiar claim to attention, from its containing a detailed, and we believe a faithful, biography of this amiable and extraordinary man,—a biography which cannot be perused without an

intermixture of the warmest veneration and the most heartfelt pity. The text is from Isaiah, lv. 8, 9.

'For my thoughts (are) not your thoughts, neither (are) your ways my ways, saith the Lord. For (as) the heavens are higher than the earth, so are my ways higher than your ways, and my thoughts than your thoughts.' P. 1.

It was addressed to the inhabitants of Olney, 'without distinction of religious persuasions,' and preached in the Dissenting Chapel, where Mr. Cowper was wont to associate. It is dedicated to lady Hesketh, his relation and executrix. From the narration presented in the pages before us, it appears that Mr. Cowper was born of respectable parents, and related to many families of great affluence and noble rank. He was educated for the bar, and eventually possessed an appointment highly lucrative and honourable. In holding this situation, however, it would be occasionally necessary for him to appear at the bar of the house of lords; and, such was his natural timidity and dejection of mind, that he could not bring himself to comply with this part of his duty.

'Several affecting circumstances concurred to increase the agony of his mind, while revolving the consequences of relinquishing the post to which he had been nominated; and he wished for madness, as the only apparent means by which his perplexity and distress could be terminated. A desperation, of which few among mankind can form a suitable conception, but which it may be hoped many will regard with tender pity, drove him to attempt self-murder; and the manner of his preservation in life, or rather his restoration to it, indicated an unusual interposition of the providence of God. His friends no longer persisted in urging him to retain his office. It was resigned; and with it his flattering prospects vanished, and his connexions with the world dissolved.' P. 11.

From this period he appears to have laboured under the most unhappy alienation of mind, combined with the most gloomy views of religion; so far, at least, as related to his own future state.

'Instead of finding relief from reading, every book he opened, of whatever kind, seemed to him adapted to increase his distress, which became so pungent as to deprive him of his usual rest, and to render his broken slumbers equally miserable with his waking hours. While in this state, he was visited by the late Rev. Martin Madan, who was related to him. By explaining from the Scriptures the doctrine of original sin, Mr. Madan convinced him that all mankind were on the same level with himself before God. The atonement and righteousness of Christ were set forth to him as the remedy which his case required; and the necessity of faith in Christ, in order to experience the blessings of this salvation, excited his earnest desire for the attainment. His mind derived present ease from these important truths, but still inclined to the supposition that this faith was in his own power. The following day he again sunk under the horrors of perdition; and that distraction which he had sought as a refuge from the fear of man now seized him amidst his terrors of eternal judge-

ment. A vein of self-loathing ran through the whole of his insanity; and his faculties were so completely deranged, that the attempt which he had lately deplored as an unpardonable transgression now appeared to him an indispensable work of piety. He therefore repeated his assault upon his own life, under the dreadful delusion that it was right to rid the earth of such a sinner, and that the sooner it was accomplished his future misery would be the more tolerable. His purpose being again mercifully frustrated, he became at length familiar with despair, and suffered it to be alleviated by conversation with a pious and humane physician at St. Albans, under whose care he had happily been placed.' P. 12.

The conversation of this gentleman appears to have been highly beneficial to him. He recovered, by degrees, a considerable portion of cheerfulness; and with this a hope that he should finally be accepted at the tribunal of God. Under these happier impressions, he composed several excellent hymns of pious exultation, as also many of the sportive and lighter pieces of his moral poetry. A few years afterwards, however, he unfortunately relapsed into his former state of dreadful melancholy; and this attack was of long duration indeed.

'At times,' however, 'after more than twelve years of uninterrupted despair, some transient changes of his mental sensations admitted a gleam of hope, of which he immediately availed himself for a renewal of intercourse with God. He prayed in private as before his affliction, and even his slumbers were thus delightfully occupied. He has spoken of such nights, compared with those he usually endured, as passed on a bed of rose-leaves instead of fiery tortures, and as a transition from hell to heaven. These lucid intervals were unhappily so short, that he never resumed his attendance on public worship. The most tolerable days that he spent in the customary state of his mind he has described to me as begun with traces of horror left by the most frightful dreams. The forenoon, being employed in composition, became gradually less distressing. Before dinner he usually walked two hours; and the air, the rural prospects, and muscular exercise, contributed to his further relief. If at dinner, and during the afternoon, he had the company of an intimate friend or two, which was frequently the case during the last ten years that he lived in this neighbourhood, their conversation seemed to afford the principal alleviation to his habitual burden. The evening was commonly employed in reading aloud to some friend who resided with him; for, such was the care of God over this amiable sufferer, that he never was left without some companion, whose heart the Lord disposed to sacrifice every comfort for his preservation and relief. But as night approached, his gloom of mind regularly increased; and when he went to his bed, it was not to rest, but to be again harassed in slumber with the terrifying images of a bewildered fancy, neither restrained by the controul of reason, nor diverted by external objects.

'Of the general condition of his mind, during the last seven years of his abode in this vicinity, which certainly were the most tranquil that he passed in the latter part of his life, the best judge-

ment may be formed from his own expressions, in a poem written toward the close of that interval. It was occasioned by the unexpected acquisition of a small portrait of his mother, whom he had lost more than half a century before, but had never ceased to remember with the warmest gratitude and the fondest affection. Having described her's and his father's passage through this life to a heavenly world, under the figure of a voyage speedily and prosperously terminated, he naturally reverts, in the same metaphorical language, to the distressing contrast which his own situation and prospects presented.

"But me, scarce hoping to attain that rest,
Always from port withheld, always distress'd—
Me howling winds drive devious, tempest-toss'd,
Sails ript, seams op'ning wide, and compass lost;
And, day by day, some current's thwarting force
Sets me more distant from a prosp'rous course.
But oh the thought that thou art safe, and he,
That thought is joy, arrive what may to me."

'The principal pleasure that our excellent neighbour appeared to be capable of receiving was indeed that which he derived from the happiness of others. Instead of being provoked to discontent and envy by contrasting their comforts with his own afflictions, there evidently was not a benefit that he knew to be enjoyed by others which did not afford him sensible satisfaction—not a suffering they endured that did not add to his pain. To the happiness of them who were privileged with opportunities of showing their esteem for him he was most tenderly alive. The advancement of the knowledge of Christ in the world at large was always near his heart; and whatever concerned the general welfare of mankind was interesting to him, secluded as he was from the public, and in common from religious society. In like manner, from his distant retreat, he viewed with painful sensations the progress of infidelity, and of sin in every shape. His love to God, though unassisted by a hope of divine favour, was invariably manifested by an abhorrence of every thing that he thought dishonourable to the Most High, and a delight in all that tended to His glory.' P. 22.

'During the last year, or two, of Mr. Cowper's life, his health and his state of mind appeared to be as much restored as for an equal time at any period during his long afflictions. Toward the close of the past winter, he was, however, attacked by a bodily disorder, which brought on a rapid decay. His young friend and relative, convinced that he would shortly exchange a world of infirmity and sorrow for a far more exceeding and eternal weight of glory, repeatedly endeavoured to cheer him with the prospect, and to assure him of the happiness that awaited him. Still he refused to be comforted. "Oh spare me! spare me! You know, you know it to be false"—was his only reply, with the same invincible despair to which he had so long been a prey. Early on the twenty-fifth day of April, he sunk into a state of apparent insensibility, which might have been mistaken for a tranquil slumber but that his eyes remained half open,

His breath was regular, though feeble; and his countenance and animal frame were perfectly serene. In this state he continued for twelve hours; and then expired, without heaving his breath.' P. 27.

ART. 25.—*A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Lincoln, at the Triennial Visitation of that Diocese in June and July* 1800. *By George Pretyman, D.D. F.R.S. Lord Bishop of Lincoln.* 8vo. 1s. Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

Our readers may recollect that we noticed not long ago an anonymous 'report'* said to have been drawn up by the clergy of a district in the diocese of Lincoln, and that we expressed our doubts of its authenticity. These doubts are completely removed by the charge before us, in which the right reverend author, whose veracity and competency to decide upon the subject no one can impeach, not only approves of it, but declares it to be 'the report of a committee in this district appointed to examine into the real state of religion,' &c. and it is to be noticed that these were the words adopted in one district, whilst in several others a warm commendation of the report was substituted for them. Hence it will not be difficult to ascertain the district which gave birth to the report; but notwithstanding the authenticity now attached to the former pamphlet, we cannot retract our objections to it, as we think it highly injurious to the interests of the church.

The bishop confirms the statement of the Report in these words.

'From this report, which is allowed to describe a great part of the kingdom, it appears, that besides those who really and openly dissent from our church, the numbers who profess to believe all its doctrines, and yet renounce its authority, and revile its ministers, are very greatly increased. Many of these fanatics, by pretending to an extraordinary degree of sanctity, to a species of faith not to be found in the Gospel, to an especial call or gift of grace, which supersedes the necessity of education, and of the regular ordination commanded and practised by the apostles themselves, seduce the people from their appointed ministers, separate them from the communion of the church, gain a compleat ascendency over them, and instil into their minds the most dangerous opinions, with the most active enthusiasm. The effect of this mis-called evangelical preaching too often appears in the despondence of religious melancholy, or in the licentiousness of shameless profligacy, and in principles and conduct, which the precepts of the Gospel, and the whole history of mankind, declare to be absolutely inconsistent with true religion and the well-being of society.' P. 18.

We are very much mistaken if this outré statement of the evangelical preaching is by any means calculated to retard its progress in his lordship's diocese; and the clergy of that description cannot but have felt themselves irritated by this mistaken view of their principles.

We are compelled to notice, though with extreme regret, that this is the third episcopal charge in which the wretched compilations of the abbé Barruel and professor Robison are obtruded on the clergy with such an authority as it would be unseemly in them to resist. The English clergy do not stand in need of such alarms; and the quarters

* See our XXIXth Vol. New Arr. p 477.

from which they proceed are so suspicious in themselves, that abstracting from the internal evidence of these publications, and the want of all those criteria which establish the truth of history, we are astonished that the higher clergy should afford their sanction to works whose puny celebrity is alone derived from the prejudices of the times, and which are already falling into deserved contempt with the public.

But if the worthy prelate seems in some respects to have unnecessarily introduced before his clergy these questionable publications, his exhortations to them on the general performance of their duties, his recommendation of Sunday schools, his encouragements to residence, and his desire to prevent improper persons from being introduced into the church, stamp this charge with a considerable degree of merit, and the publication of it may be very useful to the clergy of his lordship's diocese.

ART. 26.—*A Sermon, preached before his Excellency the Lord Lieutenant, on Thursday the 29th of November*, 1798, *being the Day appointed for a General Thanksgiving to Almighty God for the late glorious Victory obtained by Lord Nelson over the French Fleet, and for the other recent Interpositions of his good Providence towards the effectual Deliverance of these Kingdoms from Foreign Invasion and Intestine Commotion. By the Honourable and Right Reverend William Knox, Lord Bishop of Killaloe.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

These discourses are of no common manufacture: they display the energy of a vigorous and well-informed mind—of a patriot alive to his country's weal—indignant at the efforts of avowed traitors, of secret enemies, or of timid friends—and laudably concerned for Ireland's future prosperity; and, as connected with that object, for the proper direction of conduct and principles in the students of the university of Dublin. The style is, at times, uncommonly brilliant; and the comparisons are well selected, to convey more forcibly the ideas of the preacher.

We were pleased with the unequivocal opinion expressed by this respectable prelate in favour of the practice of imparting instruction to the common people, and with that liberality of sentiment which he in general discovers.

With many other parts of the thanksgiving-sermon we were likewise highly pleased; but we cannot refrain from objecting to the strain of the eulogium which, in the following passage, the prelate pronounces on his hearers.

'No, not a man whom I now behold,—I believe I may almost speak without an exception,—but may boast, that to his prudence and to his liberality, to his patience and to his activity, to his temper and to his courage, is the Christian world, in a great measure, indebted for its preservation from utter ruin and extinction.' P. 2.

Without animadverting on the preacher's strange omission, in neglecting to ascribe this preservation, in the first instance, to the care of a divine superintending Providence, we may observe, that the language borders strongly on hyperbole and fulsome flattery when

the bishop of Killaloe gravely tells his hearers that 'to their prudence, &c. is the Christian world, in a great measure, indebted for its preservation from utter ruin and extinction.' We may justly condemn such unwarranted and over-rated expressions of praise and self-exultation, as they serve to injure a good cause, and give occasion to disaffected persons to turn into ridicule a variety of just observations in this discourse, well entitled to their attentive consideration. Nor can we praise the bishop's apology for the ebullition of revengeful passions and excesses which succeeded the suppression of the Irish rebellion.

'If,' says he, 'in the prosecution of that struggle, passion may, in some instances, have mastered reason; if the convulsions of nature have sometimes snapped the fetters of law; if the voice of religion has been drowned in the clamour of revenge; if, I say, such charges are calumnies, they may be despised; if they are truths, they will soon be forgotten: they are transitory spots, and bury themselves in the blaze of your virtues.' p. 4.

We hardly think such attempted palliation as this becoming the pen or lips of one who had been taught in the school of Christ.

The Address to the Students of Trinity College, Dublin, is a masterly performance, and appears well to have merited the approbation and praise of that learned and respectable body. A discourse like this, which discovers a great knowledge of human nature, and which was so seasonably adapted to the circumstances of the times, could not fail of making a salutary impression on the minds of the hearers.

No one, we think, will blame us for recommending the perusal of the bishop's Address to the young men at our own universities, and indeed to every one that may be exposed to the insinuations of artful deceivers, who, under pretence of recommending a new, but spurious, philosophy, would ultimately loosen the bonds of human society, and sap the foundations of the Christian faith.

ART. 27.—*The Sin of Schism; a Sermon, preached at the Parish Church of Rempstone, Nottinghamshire, on Sunday, July* 6, 1800. *By Edward Pearson, B. D. &c.* 8*vo.* 6*d.* Rivingtons.

A very judicious well-timed discourse on a sin very prevalent in these days. It arises in part from a negligence in the performance of the duties of the church by its ministers—in part from a want of union in the church on the meaning of its articles—but in a much greater measure from the want of a due consideration of the nature of the Christian church, from the zeal of schismatical preachers, and from that fanaticism to which the vulgar are prone when sufficient care is not taken of their spiritual instruction. It is in vain that the preacher points out the wickedness of schism, unless he is, 'in season and out of season,' instructing his flock in evangelical truth. If he be remiss, or if he dole out to them the meagre scraps of heathen morality, the poor will run to the less learned, but more earnest instructors—to those who speak to the heart in terms intelligible to themselves, though not satisfactory to the refinement of taste or the acumen of philosophy.

ART. 28.—*Appeals to Law reconciled with Christian Charity: A Sermon, preached at the Assizes held at Nottingham, July 31, 1800, before the Honourable Sir Giles Rooke, Knt. One of the Justices of the Court of Common Pleas, and the Honourable Sir Soulden Lawrence, Knt. One of the Justices of the Court of King's Bench. By Edward Pearson, B. D. &c.* 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

The circumstances under which appeals to law are justifiable are not numerous; and it would be well if real Christians would attend to the apostolical precept, and, where disagreements arise, settle them with each other by arbitration. But since every one may be in that situation which renders an appeal to law necessary, let it be made in the method well pointed out in this discourse—in such a manner 'as not to injure the frame and disposition of our hearts;' and in the desire of justice let no one give 'place to the sentiment of revenge.'

ART. 29.—*Reflections concerning Religious Divisions; affectionately addressed to the People of England.* 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1800.

We are informed in this work, that 'St. Clement, whose name, the apostle says, is written in the Book of Life, was ordained Bishop of Rome in the year of our Lord 93;' and, in proof of this assertion, we are referred to Du Pin's Ecclesiastical History. This is sorry authority for a lame story. The whole income of the church, including bishoprics, cathedral and collegiate churches, is stated to be under £.1,500,000 a-year. The church, indeed, is not so rich as its adversaries sometimes represent it; nor yet is it so poor as is imagined by its present advocate. His positions may be removed without injury to the main point of his work—the divisions created by the doctrines now termed evangelical or methodistical. The fatal consequences of the spread of these doctrines is pointed out with great judgement, the ministers of the establishment are vindicated, and the members of the church are seriously adjured to beware of giving countenance to schism, and on no account to separate from a communion in which every article of faith is inculcated.

ART. 30.—*A Discourse delivered on the Fast-Day, in February 1799, in the Church of St. Lawrence, Winchester. By the Rev. Henry Gabell, A. B. &c.* 8vo. 1s. Cadell *and* Davies.

The preacher's text is taken from Psalm xi. 1:—'Why do the people imagine a vain thing?'—In discussing his subject, which is treated with much apparent labour of composition, Mr. Gabell proves that the pseudo-philosophy of modern times is the vain thing here referred to. This leads him into a pretty wide field of politics, and a variety of close reasoning upon numerous topics which have agitated the public mind of late years. We do not deny to this writer the praise of good sense and cogent argument; but we question whether his talents were most usefully employed, upon a fast-day, in delivering a discourse so fully occupied with nice political discussions, that we think it may be denominated any thing rather than a sermon,—a discourse which must have left the more illiterate part of his auditory enveloped in the clouds, and the more serious and devout unedified and disappointed.

ART. 31.—*A Sermon, preached June* 24, 1798. *By the Rev. George Scobell, Curate of Shrivenham, Berks.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Rivingtons.

This is a farewell address to the parishioners of Shrivenham, from an appropriate text—2 Cor. xiii. 11. The advice it contains is good, and appears to have been seasonable; and we hope it was not lost upon the auditory to whom it was delivered. It comprises nothing, however, that can entitle it to particular notice.

ART. 32.—*The Christian Ministry exemplified in St. Paul; a Sermon, preached in the Parish-Church of Boston, at the Visitation of the Rev. John Pretyman, D. D. &c. May* 7, 1800. *By Charles Jerram, A. M.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Rivingtons.

An excellent discourse for the occasion; plain, serious, and comprehensive; teaching the poor to eschew evil and do good—to seek peace and ensue it. We could scarcely prevail on ourselves to censure the introduction of a panegyric on the public and private virtues of our sovereign; but, being sensible of the suspicions which even an expatiation on real merit may excite, and of the injurious consequences to religion from individual merit or demerit becoming the theme of pulpit-discourses, we cannot too often point out to preachers that in the Scriptures alone are to be found those examples which may be adduced without the charge of adulation or resentment.

ART. 33.—*A Sermon on the Duties incumbent on the Poor at this particular Crisis; preached in the Parish-Church of Horningsham, before Two Friendly Societies; and published at their Request, and for their Benefit. By the Rev. Francis Skurray, A. M. &c.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Rivingtons. 1800.

A good visitation-sermon. Eight pages of preface, which might have well been spared, introduce it to the public; and in this preface the writer indulges in the following odd conceit;—'The name of every Christian minister may be called Legion.'

MEDICINE.

ART. 34.—*A System of Dissections. Parts* II, III, IV, V. *Containing the Anatomy and Diseases of the Thorax. With Plates. By Charles Bell. Folio.* 5*s. each Part.* Johnson.

In our examination of the first part of these dissections*, we explained Mr. Bell's plan, and gave our opinion of the utility of his work in general. We shall now engage farther on the detail of his design, as the successive numbers have developed it.

His object is to direct the younger student in his anatomical studies, and to lead him gradually to the different parts, till he has attained a greater degree of patience and dexterity.

The first dissection, for obvious reasons, is that of the abdominal muscles, and the parts contained within them. The descriptions in this, as in the other parts, are simple, perspicuous, and accurate.

* Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XXIII. p. 291.

The application of these to morbid appearances and to operations form a particularly valuable section. In the first fasciculus the anatomical part is descriptive: in the succeeding ones it consists of the description of the plate, after mentioning the previous steps, and the manner of conducting the dissection, which the author thinks will 'give conciseness and accuracy.' In other respects, except a slight variation in the manner of the engraver, the plan is unaltered. Any changes after the commencement are undoubtedly improper; but these are so slight that they cannot materially affect the uniformity of the work.

The second part is the dissection of the thorax and its containing parts; the description of the situation of the heart, of the structure of the mediastinum, and its connexion with the diaphragm, is peculiarly clear and valuable, illustrating with great precision Mr. Bell's view of the action of the vascular system and of the diaphragm, as affecting the heart. This is introductory to the diseases of the circulating system.

On the ossifications of arteries, Mr. Bell adds nothing particularly new; but he denies, with apparent reason, that these are ever causes of aneurisms in the larger arteries. Aneurisms near the heart he attributes to a disease of the coats of the artery, by which they are deprived of their elasticity; and as the elasticity of the coats, and that of the muscular fibres, are increased near the part where the artery sends off branches, the loss of resistance will be *there* first and most severely felt. The influence of concretions, as a cause of aneurisms in the extremities, he is compelled to admit; but he remarks (what is really true) that these are of a different kind, and arise from a dilatation of one side only, which the concretion may occasion mechanically, by puncturing the coats. The other diseases of the heart and larger vessels are carefully described.

The third part exhibits the dissection of the pelvis, and the various diseases to be traced by the knife, to which these organs are subject. In some of these Mr. Bell has not been sufficiently full, in a chirurgical view; but he must be considered as an anatomist only; and perhaps, if he had gone further, he might be thought to have wandered from his path. We were particularly pleased with the description of the descent of the testicles, and some of his observations on inguinal hernia. In the diseases of the female pelvis he scarcely intrudes on the steps of the accoucheur.

The fourth part contains the anatomy of the groin and lower extremity; and the diseases illustrated by dissection are—femoral hernia, encysted aneurism of the groin and thigh, wounds of the thigh, and popliteal aneurism. This section is very valuable and important, and is illustrated with seven plates.

The fifth part is more strictly anatomical, containing dissections of the hip, part of the thigh, the leg, and foot. It is accompanied with four plates.

The engravings are in general from original drawings, a few only being taken from the fasciculi of Haller. They are in general neatly executed, and give clear and distinct ideas of the parts represented. The original ones were drawn, and sometimes etched, by Mr. Bell

himself. On the whole, this volume is highly interesting to the anatomical student, and the author's plan seems to merit great encouragement.

ART. 35.—*A Treatise on Sugar. By Benjamin Moseley, M. D. &c. The Second Edition.* 8vo. 6s. *Boards.* Robinsons.

Our respectable veteran, the first edition of whose work we noticed in our XXVIIth Vol. New Arr. p. 327, seems to complain of the treatment he has received from some of our brother journalists, and displays a degree of irritability which gave us pain, though unconnected with his complaint. Experience might have informed him that to please every body is impossible; and to produce a work perfectly unexceptionable, *omnibus numeris absolutum*, is beyond human power. If 'nothing was extenuated, nought might have been set down in malice.'

The second edition of this treatise is larger, by nearly one-half, than the former. The additions are numerous in every part; but we do not perceive that the deficiencies of which we complained are supplied, *viz.* the late experiments of Mr. Cruikshank. The chief additions are to the medical observations in the conclusion; and those of most practical importance relate to the use of phlebotomy in fevers of a malignant kind, in which he supports the doctrines of Rush, lately noticed. On the whole, we think this volume a very respectable compilation of what was before known, rendered more valuable by some original opinions of an able and experienced practitioner.

POETRY.

ART. 36.—*Britain Preserved. A Poem. In Seven Books.* 8vo. 6s. *Boards.* Murray *and* Highley. 1800.

'The general design of the present poem is to represent the political state of the British empire at the breaking out of the American war—to describe the principal actions and events of the war; and in these to concentrate the influence and effects of the whole—to trace Britain to that low, and almost desperate state, in which the war left her; and from hence, her sudden and unexpected recovery, under Mr. Pitt's administration, to that uncommon degree of prosperity, at which she had arrived before the breaking out of the present disturbances in France.

'The poem is supposed to commence at the first breaking out of the American commotions, and to end about the year 1789; at which time it was really finished, though diffidence of being able to attract public attention has hitherto prevented its appearance.' P. xxi.

The machinery of the poem is allegorical, which the author, 'notwithstanding a strong aversion to allegory, found himself obliged to use, lest he should sink into the language and style of common satire.' Luxury, Corruption, Discord, &c. are the foes of Britain; and Morogogue is their agent. Of this personage the author thus speaks:

'Morogogue is indeed, I believe, a person and character, even in poetry, entirely new: but one who has made such a conspicuous

figure, and acted such an important part, of late years, both in this and other countries, that a few words will be sufficient to introduce the reader to his acquaintance. The classical reader, from the etymology of the word, will indeed easily understand that the name implies literally the leader of fools. In the following work it is used to express that character which takes advantage of the folly, infatuation, or madness of the multitude, to excite public tumult and confusion; of which the people are always the dupes, and generally the victims. It may, perhaps, be thought that the better known term, Demagogue, might as well have served this purpose; but upon attentive observation it will be found, that though these two characters are nearly allied, there is still a specific difference between them. A demagogue may be a bad or a good character, according to the designs he pursues, and the means and instruments he makes use of to accomplish these designs. A demagogue may have the real good of the public in view, and only use his influence with the populace to promote that end, and may make his appeal to the reason and good sense of the people: Morogogue is always a dangerous and pernicious character, his designs ever either selfish or absurd; nor does he care, and is often incapable of calculating, at what expence of public disaster he may accomplish them: and his unvarying instruments are popular folly and infatuation, which it is his concern to raise to tumult, madness, and sedition. Mr. Fox, when he called himself the man of the people, might be a demagogue; lord George Gordon was certainly a Morogogue. Morogogue is no doubt a branch of the Demagogue family; and every Morogogue must of necessity be a Demagogue, but it is not necessary that every Demagogue be a Morogogue.

'But the reader must here be cautioned not to understand, by Morogogue, in the following work, any particular individual person, or personal character, but an abstract allegorical one, equally including all that have acted in that capacity, from Jack Straw to George Gordon. Or, Morogogue may be conceived as the demon, or presiding genius of popular delusion; the different characters introduced may be considered as the different forms he assumes, or the successive agents he makes use of in his designs. The clear notion that every orthodox Protestant has of the pope, under the character of Antichrist, will suggest a perfect conception of the character of Morogogue in the following work. P. xiii.

Mr. Pitt's great merits and astonishing success in driving forth Discord, expelling Corruption, and suppressing Morogogue, conclude the poem. A plan so original in its defects requires no criticism. The prophetic lines at the end of the poem shall show its poetical character.

'Yet not the age of perfect peace arriv'd;
Shall still some seeds of antient feuds remain,
Still other wars, and other heroes rise,
Still other Marlboroughs, other Pitts appear;
And Gallia still by pride, or folly, prove
The pest, and scourge, of Europe's factious states.
But tho' the guilt of our seditious broils,
Still unaton'd, with threatening danger frown;

From hence, by Reason's peaceful force dispell'd,
The world shall rest, absolv'd from future fears;
Till Freedom fair her banner wide shall spread,
And Liberty in every land shall reign.

'Thus heaven-born Peace her bounteous bliss shall shed,
Beneath her wings the nations dwell secure;
Her pleasing, prosperous influence shall expand,
Till social joys shall gladden every clime,
And all the tribes of various-peopl'd earth,
One family compose, one Father claim,
The Universal Parent, Source of all.

'When the seventh angel, arm'd with wrath divine,
Has emptied his last vial on the earth;
From hence, the curse exhausted, heaven appeas'd;
With eye propitious, and paternal care,
The Sire Supreme his various race shall view;
And all his long-perverted works restor'd,
In bliss the smile benignant shall enjoy.

'Then by the voice of the seventh trumpet rous'd,
The heavenly choirs shall hail with glad acclaim;
The rescu'd 'kingdoms of this world become
The kingdoms of our Lord, and of his Christ,'
Anointed King, propitious Prince of Peace!
Then he his majesty and prosperous power
Assuming, soon shall vanquish every foe;
Evil extinct thro' Nature's wide domain,
His reign shall with increasing bliss extend,
His sempiternal empire know no bounds.
Behold the tracts of sea, the earth's glad orb,
The heaven's high arch, the boundless realms of space;
See all exult to greet the glorious age,
When universal peace and bliss shall reign,
And God supreme in all his works rejoice.

'At this blest dawn, as at Creation's birth,
The morning stars in concert glad shall sing,
And all the bright immortal sons of light
Shall shout for joy; till hallelujahs high
From heaven to earth resound, from earth to heaven.
Auspicious era! Glorious scenes arise!
Supreme, Omnipotent, Eternal King,
The time arrives, assume thy power and reign.' P. 289.

It ought not to be omitted, that the author appears throughout the volume a sincere Christian, and a candid and liberal friend of mankind.

We have received a letter from the gentleman, desiring us to state that the typographical inaccuracies are not imputable to him.

ART. 37.—*Aphono and Ethina, including the Science of Ethics, founded on the Principles of Universal Science. A Poem, in Three Cantos. By George Nason.* 12mo. 2s. Hill.

Mr. Nason appears from this publication to be a man of considera-

ble science and profound reflexion. The principles which he endeavours to enforce are sound and good. He labours in the cause of religion and virtue: but we are sorry to declare it as our opinion, that he is not likely to promote this valuable cause by his poetical powers.

He does not seem to possess either that imagination or facility without which it is absolutely impossible to render the stern figure of of metaphysics attractive or graceful beneath the loose and flowing robe poetry.

ART. 38.—*Equanimity: a Poem. By Mason Chamberlin.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Clarke. 1800.

In this poem the nature of equanimity is discussed with philosophical accuracy. The spirit of piety by which it is animated does honour to the author's heart. Its diction is uniformly correct; its numbers flow with a smooth and even tenor; but we have seldom traced much of the elevation or daring genius of the true poet. He thus details the comforts of real religion:

'Such are the comforts true religion yields;
Alike remote from superstitious fears,
Or arrogant self-confidence, the views
Her friendly ray affords: in ev'ry stage
Or circumstance of life, from infancy
To hoary hairs, a faithful monitor,
Who not in time of need deserts her charge,
But with redoubled care, supplies a strength
Proportion'd to our day. Does want assail,
Or anguish rend the heart, she points the road
To realms of permanent and pure delight,
The rich reward of patience and of faith
Unfeign'd, and persevering to the end.
Does conscience threaten, with a skilful hand
She probes the wound, and searches to the quick;
Then with the balm of humble penitence,
And genuine hope, not from presumption drawn,
But fair assurance of the sacred word,
Heals the disorder'd mind, and sooths the pangs
Of self-reproach, inspiring better thoughts
And resolutions for the future course
Of life's probationary scene. At length,
When ev'ry earthly blessing, like the gourd
In which the prophet Jonah so rejoic'd,
Is wither'd and destroy'd; when Death's dread arm,
Impending, shakes his last unerring dart;
She parries the fell stroke, and yielding up
His only prey, th' examinated corpse,
Swift on triumphant pinions, bears aloft
Th' immortal spirit, there to wait that time
When death shall hear the summons, and obey,
Surrend'ring all the delegated pow'r
Transgression has confer'd, and giving back
The body from the tomb, more perfect then,
And suited to its heav'nly habitant.' P. 16.

DRAMA.

Art. 39.—*Edmond; Orphan of the Castle, a Tragedy, in Five Acts, founded on the 'Old English Baron.' A Gothic Story.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Faulder.

This is a very poor performance. We shall treat our readers with the ghost, who certainly would have been the most interesting character in representation.

'*Edmond on the bed asleep; on one side the ghost of Lord Lovel in armour, with the beaver down: on the other Lady Lovel; soft music is heard, and they retire through the folding doors.*

'Edmond *(awakes much disturbed.)*

'*Edmond.* Ah! is it so? or do ideal flights oppress my brain?
Methought, they said 'Hail Edmond Lord of Lovel!'
And then! Oh God! with solemn groans cried 'Murder' thrice!—
With hands uplifted bless'd me as their son,
When heav'nly sounds possess'd my wond'ring soul!—
My stricken heart, of superstition void,
Beats with emotion at my marv'lous dreams:—
(A wind proceeds through the apartments, and the folding doors close.)
Behold! the doors now close through which they pass'd!
Great heav'n! are these thy messengers of fate;
Are they decreed t'unfold each darken'd deed,
Which sapient villainy hath still secreted?—
Yet stop and ponder well, vain Edmond!
Ere thou'rt convinc'd, to thee the augur tends;
Edmonds, there are, besides the orphan Edmond!—
My mind's a labyrinth without a clue,
Oft have I dream'd, and like a vision 'twas
Playing o'er my fancy of reflection void,—
My new 'woke eyes by real objects struck
The fleeting forms lost ev'ry faint impression——
——Here! dread solemnity my senses power'd,
And though I slept, yet still I seem'd awake!—
(Turning towards the doors.)
Through yonder doors they made their awful exit!
My enquiring mind would fain seek further proof—
Guilt may have fears—but innocence hath none!
I'll follow!——*(Goes through the door.)*

'SCENE II.

'*Discovers an apartment hung round with family pictures, the ghost of Lord Lovel leaning on a pedestal, on which burns a lamp—Edmond enters with great emotion, approaches slowly towards the figure, kneels, attempts to clasp the hand, when the armour falls with a loud noise, without the figure.—*

'*Edmond (after a considerable pause.)*—My visual faculties are worn to darkness,
Stupendous weights weigh down my recollection,
Oh! Heav'n preserve my intellectual powers!
(Examines the armour, and discovers blood on the breast-plate.)

Ah! gor'd with blood, perhaps a father's blood! *(Weeps.)*
Thanks pearly drops, which, as they gently fall,
Cheer the oppression of my breaking heart!
Oh! cruel fate! where will my trials end?
I'll seek the murderer!—in this coat of mail
Fly on the world in desperate pursuit,
Revenge the body which it last encompass'd.
[*Exit with Armour.*]' P. 24.

ART. 40.—*Johanna of Montfaucon, a Dramatic Romance, in Five Acts. Taken from the Fourteenth Century. By Augustus von Kotzebue.* 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.* Geisweiler.

The title-page of this publication informs us that this is the original translation of the manuscript from which Mr. Cumberland has compiled his drama, as performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. It is justly denominated a dramatic romance. Its events are truly romantic, and it is full of the bustle and confusion incident to the period of chivalry. As an insect of the day, this piece, no doubt, has fluttered with some admiration upon the stage; but it is evidently not formed for longevity, nor shall we, perhaps, ever hear of it again.

ART. 41.—*The Orphans; or, Generous Lovers. An Opera, in Three Acts. By Henry Shepherd, Esq. Captain in the* 49*th Regiment.* 8vo. 3*s.* Egerton. 1800.

This opera is published for the benefit of the widows and orphans of the soldiers who fell in Holland. Though it cannot be ranked in the higher order of dramatic compositions, it is by no means destitute of merit. The characters of Williams and Snarle, the former an amiable man oppressed by ennui, the latter a croaking politician, are well designed. The dialogue is neat and unaffected: but we cannot say much in favour of the songs, which are very deficient in point and humour.

NOVELS, &c.

ART. 42.—*The Spirit of Turretville; or, the Mysterious Resemblance. A Romance of the Twelfth Century.* 2 *Vols.* 12mo. 7*s. sewed.* Dutton. 1800.

In these times of scarcity and dearth, the author of the romance before us will be a serviceable man indeed! The philosopher's stone is nothing to the secret he is in possession of. From the day lady Riverford commits her son to her servant James, with orders to convey him to a nurse, she sees no more this faithful confidant *who supplied her with food;* and yet, strange to tell! when the boy is of an age to head a company to the Holy Land, she comes out of her hiding place fat enough to pass upon the world for a monk!—As a novel writer we cannot, in justice to our readers, compliment *him* so highly: he is not likely to become a monk, or *the author of a Monk.*—Of ghosts, whether real or fictitious, we are heartily tired; and the flight of Jessy from her parents in Messina, to follow her beloved William as his page, is much better introduced in the History of Captain Robert Boyle, from which it is copied. We are doubly sorry that confinement from illness should have compelled our author to write his book

to compensate for loss of usual labour, and we sincerely hope that before this time he is well enough to resume his *proper* occupation, in which we trust he will meet with much better success.

ART. 43.—*Jaqueline of Olzeburg; or, Final Retribution. A Romance.* 12*mo.* 3*s.* 6*d. sewed.* Chapple. 1800.

Another ghostly story, with a bombastic beginning, and an horrible termination, but with no incident between of the least consequence or interest. The author seems to have adopted the adage of the kitchen, 'Light the fire well at both sides, and the middle will take care of itself.'

ART. 44.—*The Child of Hope; or, Infidelity punished. A Novel. By a Lady.* 3 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 10*s.* 6*d. sewed.* Vernor *and* Hood. 1800.

This little novel is written in a smooth flowing style, and with a correctness of language that gives us pleasure. The characters in it, however, are by no means new: indeed it would be unreasonable, whilst the press is bringing forth weekly such a numerous progeny of this *species* of existence, to expect novelty of feature in every one. The fair author herself acknowledges this truth with respect to Lord Osmond in her first letter from Miss Milford, which we shall subjoin as a specimen of the sprightliness of her diction.

'*Miss Matilda Milford to Miss Conway.*

St. DAVID'S, *Jan.* 7.

'Oh! my beloved Elvira, what an abundance of tears have I shed over the description of your sufferings! and how grateful I feel to heaven for preserving you from such dangers as appeared almost impossible you could have escaped. Oh! that hateful, horrid wretch, Lord Osmond! how little did I imagine so detestable a character was really to be found in existence! The few novels I have read, it is true, have described wretches of a similar species, but I always fancied them caricatures of human nature, written with the view of creating a disgust to vice! but this detested Lord Osmond, this disgrace to nobility, has convinced me of my error, and fatally proved the depravity of man.

'And now, my dear Elvira, I am going to put that friendship to the test which it has so long been my happiness to think I possessed. I need not tell you, that your removal from St. David's was productive of the most heart-felt grief to me; for you witnessed my sufferings, and endeavoured to alleviate them. But now, my love, you have it now in your power not only to assuage my concern, but to restore all those pleasures I have so often enjoyed in your dear society. My mother greatly admired the delicacy of your ideas in not accepting an asylum with Mrs. Morgan, and desires me to say, that if any thing could have increased her affection for you, it would have been your behaviour upon that occasion; but, as you cannot assign a similar reason for refusing the protection she offers you, she flatters herself you will allow her to prove the sincerity of her friendship, and, by placing yourself under her maternal care, allow her to consider you as her adopted daughter.

'Oh! my beloved friend, sister of my affection, surely you will

not refuse a request so strongly connected with the happiness of y our Matilda? But why should I indulge, for a moment, so distressin g an apprehension? Let me rather believe the hour is near at hand, w hen I shall enjoy the felicity of pressing my Elvira to a heart glowing with affection, and animated by the sincerest friendship.

'My mother desires me to say, that though she admires and venerates the character of Mr. Forbes, yet she does not approve of your travelling under the guidance of so young a man; and will therefore send her own woman to accompany you the moment you have fixed the time of your departure.

'The post-man is arrived, and hardly allows me time to assure you, my dear Elvira, with kow much tenderness

'I am your's, MATILDA MILFORD.' P. 134.

ART. 45.—*A Short Story, interspersed with Poetry. By a Young Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. sewed.* Cawthorne. 1800.

The youthful writer of this 'Short Story' informs us, that her motive for publishing it was 'to enforce the duty of resignation under affliction.'—Of every species of distress to which the lot of man is subject, perhaps there is no one so difficult to be borne as that of ill treatment from those we love. The author enters upon the latter part of her story with an enthusiasm which shows the warmth of her heart. Nor have we any reason to complain that it exhibits a warmth unfriendly to the cause of virtue. If we were to exercise the severity of criticism, which she seems to dread, we might without difficulty point out many faults; but we shall content ourselves with one remark, which will apply not only to herself, but to almost all the novel writers into whose hands this critique may fall, namely, that although in periodical publications and compilements of essays a motto may serve as a convenient sign or text at the top of each separate paper, yet, in a connected story, whether gay or serious, a quotation from authors, either English or foreign, placed at the beginning of every chapter, can only tend to break the thread of the narrative, and is rarely of any use but to assist in filling up the page. And further, although the introduction of a sonnet may fairly be allowed in due time and place, yet the interspersing a work with verses, without regard to either, we must condemn as a defect of no small magnitude.

ART. 46.—*Horatio of Holstein. 3 Vols. 12mo. 12s. sewed.* Dutton. 1800.

The work before us is not so entirely destitute of merit as to provoke unlimited censure; but its author has been, nevertheless, too inattentive to its numerous blemishes not to stand in need of our friendly reprehensions. He forgets continually that he has laid his scene in Germany, and that his personages speak High Dutch, else he would not pun on the likeness of 'Cæsar's Commentaries' to 'Seizures upon Commons,' nor make young Freyherr *hot* whilst the ladies are 'roasting' him. The same sort of inaccuracy occurs throughout all the book, and a laugh is attempted to be raised by the mis-spelling of some words, and by equivoques on others, which our novelist ought to have known cannot possibly hold good alike in the English and German tongues. In the circumstance of old Freyherr and his son being taken into custody by the constable, this perversion of lan-

guage is so gross as to create disgust. The officer of the night, in the same rencounter, is a downright Cockney, and the small watch-house hung round with *parish instructions*, and duties of constables, has nothing of German about it. We could not avoid smiling at the *familiar* introduction of the *tea equipage* at Mrs. Brun's table, as well as at the grate and poker in Parson Heiligkeit's kitchen at Grunen; and we have no doubt that the writer will good-naturedly smile with us, when we remind him that he has made Farmer Martin, of the neighbourhood of Frankfort, commend his daughter Rosella as a famous manufacturer of *pudding*.

The plot is by far too intricate to be remembered with precision, and the multiplicity of characters assigned to Sterndorf do not accord with common notions of probability. We wish the author had not attempted to quote Latin sentences, as they oblige us to observe the incorrectness of '*propria personæ*,' '*ocyor nimbos*,' '*aquæ vitæ*,' &c.; for had he been at all acquainted with 'learned lore,' his diction would have been less *unclassical*, not to say *ungrammatical*. He appears to be a person of good natural abilities, unassisted by education, affecting a bombast style of figurative humour, frequently giving birth to a pretty thought, and then smothering it by the awkwardness of its swaddling clothes.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 47.—*Select Essays of Dio Chrysostom, translated into English from the Greek; with Notes, critical and illustrative. By Gilbert Wakefield, B.A.* 8*vo.* 6*s. Boards.* Phillips. 1800.

The misfortunes of the learned translator of these essays are well known to every one; and whatever may be the opinion of the public with respect to his political sentiments, and the sufferings he is enduring for them, the world at large, we trust, will rejoice that he is not thereby prevented from persevering in works of literature and general utility. Such we deem his compilation of a Greek and English Lexicon, and such we believe to be the work before us, which consists in a translation of some of the writings of a philosopher, who, like himself, had suffered for his political freedom of speech and opinions. It would not indeed be difficult, and might be instructive, to draw a comparison between the original author of these essays and his translator; and we shall truly rejoice to find that the future days of the latter may be as fortunate as those of the former, upon his return from banishment. We make no allusion here to the political creed of either; but consider them both as men of letters, as devoted to science and philosophy, as likely to indulge in the closet in theories, remote from the common apprehensions of the ages which gave them birth, and as possessing talents entitling them to the admiration and praise of their contemporaries.

The essays here presented to the public are miscellaneous, selected with great judgement by the translator, and instilling, by dialogue or fable, or sound reasoning, the rules of moral conduct on the principles of ancient philosophy. The compositions of Dio breathe throughout the spirit of liberty, limited by proper restraints; they evince an extensive knowledge of the world derived from travel, and corrected

by study. We see in the philosopher a correct delineation of the manners of his times: and the more enlarged views we have of the nature of man, from the purer sources of our religion, lead us to admire that love of liberty, science, and virtue, which, under so many political and moral disadvantages, shone forth so conspicuously in himself. The translation is conducted in Mr. Wakefield's usual style, bold, energetic and impressive, such as his original would have been pleased with; and to English readers we may particularly recommend the volume, as conveying an excellent view of the old Grecian school, and the mode of philosophical instruction, at the time when the Gospel was introducing a more perfect rule of life.

ART. 48.—*A Letter to Mr. Eton, from a Merchant in Turkey, in Answer to a Chapter in his Survey of the Turkish Empire, to prove the Necessity of abolishing the Levant Company; and also, on Quarantine Regulations. Highly interesting to Great Britain at the present Moment.* 8vo. 1*s.* Mathews.

This letter was manufactured in Constantinople; and is, as the editor observes, not the production of an elegant pen: but, though the writer has a noble contempt for elegance and propriety of language, he possesses in a high degree the spirit of trade, and tells plain truths which deserve the attention of every one who is not a friend to monopoly. We learn, at the close of the letter, that Mr. Eton is not entirely undeserving of respect. 'I held you (says the writer) always in much respect; and I should still have done so, if you had not attacked the Levant Company in so unjust a manner, and without provocation.' The question of provocation less concerns the public than that of the justice of the manner; and we do not see, from the Levant trader's objections, sufficient grounds to call in question Mr. Eton's decision. The pamphlet, indeed, would be hardly worthy of notice, if the trader had not brought forward the arguments which, however futile, are uppermost in the mouths of monopolists. He says that the Levant trade is not a monopoly; 'for, when a person has paid twenty pounds, he is not excluded; and, if there is no exclusion, there is no monopoly.' It is a monopoly, we say; for, if they only can trade who can find it convenient to pay twenty pounds for the privilege of selling a bale of goods, the monopoly is as complete as if a thousand pounds were demanded for that purpose. But these monopolists, in their own opinion, have as much right to their exclusive trade as the duke of Marlborough to his title, or the king to his throne; and forsooth this is an hereditary right, though the writer said just before that any one might be free of the company on paying twenty pounds.

An experiment of the French deserves consideration.

'Count St. Prieste, the French ambassador, thought too that he understood trade, just like yourself, and got the Marseilles' trade thrown open. The consequence was, that all the Greeks, Jews, and Armenians, in every scale in the Levant, sent commissions to France, or went themselves, and imported such large quantities of merchandise, that the markets were overstocked; and whilst these people were selling all over the inner parts of the country, and carrying them as far as Bagdad and Georgia, a single French house could not

sell a bale of cloth, nor send home any returns: so the merchants in Marseilles for want of money, half of them stopped payment, and raised such a demur, that the king and council took it into consideration, and revoked the edict. And the chamber of commerce of Marseilles, not content, made friends in Paris, and got the ambassador turned out.' P. 19.

The phrase *over-stocking the markets* should be well explained. The Greeks, Jews, &c. undersold the established houses, and the latter could not keep their credit with those at Marseilles: these houses consequently intrigued at Paris against the embassador. This is very natural; but the question still returns—Did France export more or less by means of the Greeks, Jews, &c. than by means of the old traders?

Of the arguments against a free trade with the Levant, one is placed in a curious light.

'Pray would it be right to see Greek, Jew, and Armenian houses established in London? and going down to Birmingham, Sheffield, Manchester, Norwich, &c. &c. and carrying the goods directly out of the country, without any English house having any profit on the business? What would become of the old traders?' P. 22.

But regulations, it seems, may be made; and the following one is proposed: 'If there is any regulation to make, it ought to be a bounty such as made the corn-trade flourish, and kept up the prices.' To keep up the prices may be deemed a good maxim for a trader; but why should every Englishman pay his mite to keep up the prices for the Turkish tradesman? The writer hopes that the earl of Liverpool may not be deceived by those who do not understand the Turkey trade fundamentally: but, from the specimen given of the reasoning faculties of the Turkey traders, we advise him to leave the subject entirely to those who are to determine on its merits; for all that he has advanced in this pamphlet, instead of assisting his trade, tends rather 'to prove the necessity of abolishing the Levant Company.'

ART. 49.—*Historical View of the Rise, Progress, and Tendency, of the Principles of Jacobinism. By the Rev. Lewis Hughes, B. D, &c.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wright.

This is an abridgment of the crudities of the abbé Barruel, executed by a clergyman of the church of England. We cannot for a moment doubt the purity of the motives which excited him to this task; nor suppose, in attacking jacobinism, atheism, and infidelity, he was in danger of forming too close an alliance with an enemy whom our ancestors considered as almost equally dangerous to the Christian faith. They would be astonished to hear that the pope, who had been painted to them in the glowing colours of the Revelation, was now described by a clergyman as worthy of protection from 'the sanctity of his character;' or that if, 'under the old government of France, practical religion was not such as the friends of virtue and order wished it to be, the awful truths of revelation were received with an unfeigned assent, and embraced with devoutest reve-

rence.' Our ancestors thought very differently both of the pope and the Gallican church; and, notwithstanding the notions which are now propagated in favour of the Romish church and its adherents, we shall not scruple to justify the former opinions. We may add, that we may, perhaps, pay a more strict attention than usual to some specious modes of defending religion against the attacks of its present desperate enemies. The Protestant may consider that the open enemy of his faith is to be opposed with vigour; but he is not on that account to enter into an alliance with a corrupt church, nor even to rely upon the shield which it would place before him for his defence.

Non tali auxilio, nec defensoribus istis,
Tempus eget.

The subject is of importance; and it behoves the clergy of England to be upon their guard. In the work before us the meaning of the word *church* is not properly ascertained; nor are the errors of the Romish church, or the cruelties of French despotism, reprobated in the manner they deserve. The writer has nothing but jacobinism before his eyes; and he attributes its origin to the idle tale of a conspiracy between a few French philosophists. Let jacobinism, if it mean atheism, infidelity, immorality, cruelty, be attacked with all the cogency of argument or poignancy of ridicule; but let us not injure the justice of our cause by palliating enormities which assisted the birth of this new monster.

ART. 50.—*Remarks on the Prefaces prefixed to the First and Second Volume of a Work entitled The Holy Bible, or the Books accounted sacred by Jews and Christians; faithfully translated, &c. &c. by the Rev. Alexander Geddes, L. L. D. in Four Letters addressed to him by the Rev. John Earle.* 12mo. 2s. Booker.

That Dr. Geddes has laid himself open by some unguarded expressions, both in his prefaces and translations, to well-founded censure, we shall by no means think it incumbent on us to deny; and, in our opinions on the inspiration of the Holy Scriptures, and the time in which the Pentateuch was written, we differ still more widely from him; yet we cannot think that his labours are to be attacked with malignity, or that his sentiments justify the asperity with which he is treated in the work before us. The contempt which this writer expresses for his adversary will assuredly produce no effect upon his readers; and aukward irony and vague poetical quotations are ill adapted to a serious controversy. It is in vain that the writer alleges, as a sufficient ground for his mode of attack, the unjustifiable manner in which the inspired writers have been treated by the catholic translator of the Bible. If Dr. Geddes has made use of improper language, there was no necessity for its being investigated; and the arguments against him might have been much better disposed than in this work, which will not excite much interest either with the friends or enemies to the authority of Moses, to the inspiration of the Scriptures, or Biblical criticism.